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FUNDAMENTALS IN ENGLISH

A TEXTBOOK FOR TEACHERS COLLEGES TREATING THE SUBJECT-MATTER OF FORMAL ENGLISH FROM THE PROFESSIONAL POINT OF VIEW

BY

E. A. CROSS

PROFESSOR OF ENGLISH AND DEAN, STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, GREELEY, COLORADO.

DISCARD

New York

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY

1928

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Set up and electrotyped. Published May, 1926. Reprinted October, 1926; July, September, 1927; June, 1928.

372.6
C88t

Norwood Press
J. S. Cushing Co. — Berwick & Smith Co.
Norwood, Mass., U.S.A.

PREFACE

STUDENTS in a teachers college need textbooks of a kind different from those required by students in a college of liberal arts. The former are concerned not only with acquiring a knowledge of a given subject but also with preparing to teach it. The student in a college of liberal arts may wish to study English with a view to becoming a writer or merely to becoming a well informed person in the field of literature with some skill in writing such as any well educated person might aspire to. The teaching problem does not concern him. In a teachers college the whole problem is different. The student wishes to understand literature, to be able to get from the works of great writers that satisfaction which comes to any one educated to appreciate the fine arts. He wishes also to be able to express himself well in speech and in writing. Thus far his wants are identical with those of the liberal arts student. But he must go on to consider the demands of his chosen profession, since these have brought him to a teachers college.

It has been difficult for the teachers college to minister effectively to those needs of the prospective teacher that lie beyond the needs of the student of liberal arts. Textbooks have been made for the arts college rather than to meet the needs of students in teachers colleges. The best that could be done was either to assume that the

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elementary schools and high schools had supplied all the information in subject-matter that was needed or that courses in subject-matter could be supplemented by detached brief courses in teaching method. If the first assumption was made, the work in the teachers college was all "method"; if the second, it was nearly all "material," with a flimsy superstructure of "method" and a little practice teaching.

Teachers in teachers colleges have usually not been prepared for that type of work. Most of them have come to their teachers college positions out of public school service, or from normal school graduation supplemented by a degree in education, or from a "subject-matter" department of a university with little or no training for teaching prospective teachers. Considering their equipment in education and the tools — the textbooks — at their command they have done remarkably well. Still there has been a strong feeling that the graduates of normal schools and teachers colleges are not sufficiently well trained for their work. Complaint has been heard in some quarters that these graduates have not known how to teach; in other quarters the complaint has been that they have not known the subject-matter they were expected to teach.

The need for teachers with better training in both subject-matter and in method, the need for textbooks made specifically for teachers college classes, found expression in 1920 in *Bulletin Fourteen* of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. In his thesis dealing with the "Professional Education of Teachers," Dr. William C. Bagley set up some standards

for the "professionalization of subject-matter." The publication of Dr. E. D. Randolph's book on *The Professional Treatment of Subject-Matter*, in 1924, made available the historic background needed for a clear understanding of the problem and much information as to what was needed in courses in subject-matter to make them particularly applicable to classes in teachers colleges.

Such texts, Dr. Randolph indicated, should provide not only the materials later to be taught to children in the schools, but also a wide margin beyond those limits. The teacher should be a well-informed person in his subject, not merely an adult with a child's education. He should know the history of his subject and the part it has played in the curriculum of the schools; that is, he should know how his specific subject has figured in the history of education. He should be acquainted with the educational values and the teaching problems, methods, etc. of his subject. He should know the psychology involved in teaching it. He should know finally, in relation to it, what devices have been constructed to measure progress and to test the pupil's knowledge.

Textbooks based on this idea and in relation to all the common school subjects are needed in teachers colleges. The task of preparing one of them is enough for one writer, for the adequate treatment of the material requires special training in the field of the subject treated. Without the suggestions and encouragement of Professors Hillegas and Bagley, the writer would hardly have had the temerity to attempt, as he has here done,

to write a textbook dealing with one of the three English problems confronting the teachers colleges: the supplying of teaching equipment in literature, composition, and grammar.

This book is a modest attempt to provide for teachers the "professionalized subject-matter" of formal English. It deals with the history of the language, with such matters of development and change as seem likely to be profitable for teachers to know, and it touches upon the teaching of grammar and those phases of English study that have to do with words and sentences. It does not discuss composition. It does not touch the subject of children's literature. Those are separate problems for other writers.

Anyone who writes a book based upon exact scholarship is indebted to all the scholars who have preceded him, some close at hand in point of time, others more remote. My acknowledgment of indebtedness to recent and contemporary writers and to publishers who have graciously permitted me to quote from their books is made in footnotes to the text and in the list of references. For advice and criticism, I owe special thanks and offer them gratefully to Dr. William Chandler Bagley and Dr. Milo B. Hillegas already mentioned, to Professors Allan Abbott, Thomas H. Briggs, and Edward S. Evenden, all of Teachers College, Columbia University, and to Dr. John A. H. Keith, Principal of the Indiana (Pennsylvania) Normal School. My obligations to Dr. Edgar D. Randolph's study of the slow evolution of the idea of the professional treatment of subject-matter and to Professor Rollo L. Lyman's study of the history of

English grammar as a school subject in America require special note. The entire manuscript was carefully read and criticized from the philological point of view by Dr. Gerald E. Se Boyar of New York University, to whom, also, I desire to express my indebtedness.

E. A. Cross

EDITORS' INTRODUCTION

THE editors of the *American Teachers College Series* present this textbook by Dr. E. A. Cross to the members of the craft in the hope and belief that it will be a distinct contribution to the effective teaching of one phase of English to teachers-in-training. It is written by one who has had large experience in public school work and in teaching prospective teachers. In addition, Dr. Cross has been a careful student of education in both its theoretical and practical aspects. To the foregoing Dr. Cross adds an unusual scholarship. In consequence, the textbook presented herewith is a worthy pioneer in a most worthy field.

English is more than our mother tongue — it is the instrument and means of our expressed thinking. The genius of the Anglo-Saxon, despite all borrowing and piracy, has developed a civilization that has merit. No civilization reaches its highest development without an efficient means of social communication. Of all forms of social communication, language holds first place; it is the basal social "binder." An appreciation of the service of our language to our civilization is impossible without an understanding of its development under the stress of social need and in terms of the influence of other elements of social living.

The field of this textbook is well named by its title —

Fundamentals in English. It has a place in the preparation of teachers, for teachers should not only know what they teach but they should also understand clearly the significance and genesis and wider reaches of what they teach. These margins of knowledge and insight are an incentive to further and more accurate knowledge and are, at the same time, the matrix from which spring effective teaching procedures.

John A. H. Keith
William C. Bagley

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PART ONE

The Development of the English Language

FUNDAMENTALS IN ENGLISH

INTRODUCTION TO PART ONE

The prospective teacher's needs in subject-matter. When public school superintendents are asked what teachers are most in need of, many of them say " scholarship." They complain that the elementary teachers are too frequently bankrupt when they appear before their classes. Not that they have *no* stock on their shelves, no balance of funds to their account, but that they are required to spend all they have and perhaps a trifle more in the course of the recitation period. They skate on ice that is too thin to be safe. Teachers who have no surplus knowledge beyond that which their pupils are expected to acquire are in a fair way to live anxiously, unhappily. It would be much better to be equipped with such fullness of learning as takes away anxiety, gives assurance, and leads to freedom and joy in teaching.

That, however, is only the teacher's side of the matter. The pupil has not yet been considered. What prospect is there for the newer types of teaching through interesting projects, through socialized recitations, through the following up of felt needs, if the teacher has no margin of equipment beyond the narrow minimum of what

is to be his pupils' accomplishment? None. If the teacher of geography knows nothing more about rivers, and products, and trade than is contained in the elementary geography that his pupils have as a textbook in the fifth grade, geography is going to be a lifeless formality in his school. It will lack the illumination and variety that he could give it if he had a wide margin of knowledge, experience, and enthusiasm beyond the immediate narrow requirements of the lessons.

These are facts easily recognized, but in regard to which too little has been done. Many teachers begin their work knowing no more about the subjects that they are to teach than they knew when they dropped geography, history, arithmetic, grammar, and the other " common branches " in the seventh and eighth grades. Indeed, if they go into teaching after having finished a high school course or a high school and liberal arts college course, they probably know less of these subjects than they knew at the close of their elementary school training, for they are four or eight years away from their studies in the elementary branches.

Review courses. — The normal schools have always recognized the importance of a margin of information, or at least of a fresh contact with subject-matter, and have either openly or under a thin disguise given " reviews " in the subject-matter of history, grammar, arithmetic, and the other elementary school subjects. Usually these reviews have been nothing more than repeated studies of the limited elementary school materials. They have not supplied any margin. On this account they have been objected to as being below the

level of subjects taken in college for credit. When the normal schools began to be ambitious for college standing and college recognition, they were obliged to discard or veil these "reviews."

Method courses. — The new guise under which these reviews in the common branches appeared was that of "method courses." In most cases the old subject-matter was taught, preceded by, accompanied with, or followed by some instruction about teaching the subject. If the instructor regarded the pedagogical phase of his task as important, he gave a good deal of his time to the question of how to teach and very little to providing his students with something to offer to their prospective pupils; but, if he had no high opinion of the magic powers of method, he taught in a didactic way all he knew of "method" in two or three recitation periods and gave all the rest of the time to reviews or advanced studies in the old subject-matter.

The new professional attitude toward subject-matter. — Raising elementary school materials to the college level is a commendable thing for a teachers college to do; but, if its only purpose is to make these acceptable for even exchange of credits between normal schools and colleges, the move is not justified. Any such change of attitude toward the treatment of school subject-matter must justify itself on grounds of applicability to the end for which it is made. Such a justification can be found in the professional attitude toward subject-matter first adequately set forth by Dr. William C. Bagley in *Bulletin Fourteen* of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

The principle of the idea of giving a professional treatment to subject-matter is set forth in the following paragraph:

As far as possible the distinction between courses in special methods of teaching and courses in subject-matter itself should be eliminated. Every professional curriculum should embody thorough courses of distinctly collegiate character in all of the subject-matter that the student proposes to teach. In these courses the specific organization of materials for elementary or secondary teaching should be fully discussed, and the approved methods of teaching should be both exemplified and justified.[1]

Professional treatment implies the teaching of the specific subject-matter in a setting appropriate to the purpose of the teacher. This means that the place of the subject in the history of education should be made clear; that its psychology should be taught, not in a general course dealing with the psychology of the school subjects but along with the subject-matter itself; that a wide margin of material beyond the needs of the elementary learner should be acquired by the prospective teacher; and that other implications to be developed later in detail should be made use of in teachers college classes in these specific subjects.

Every course in the normal school [says Dr. Bagley] should be in an important sense a course in psychology.... There is no better place to teach individual differences than in the courses on school management and the technique of teaching; nowhere may the characteristics of the child's mind in its successive stages of growth be more clearly illustrated than in connection with the work in reading and arithmetic; while the principles of habit formation and the laws of

[1] *Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Bulletin Fourteen.* New York, 1920, p. 393.

learning may be applied and exemplified in every subject and in every class.[1]

There would be [he continues] a distinct advantage in making each teacher of the specific courses in methods, school management, and the principles of teaching responsible for the historical aspects of the subject. The significance of the modern method of teaching reading, for example, will be much more keenly appreciated by the student if he knows something of the older methods; and the appropriate point, indeed the only point, at which to give the student this historical perspective upon the reading problem is in the specific course that deals with the teaching of primary reading. Again the courses in arithmetic and the teaching of arithmetic offer innumerable occasions for illuminating present practices through references to the development both of arithmetic itself and of the methods of teaching it to children..... It is a sound psychology that associates the earlier stages of an institution or of an educational practice with the treatment that most completely reveals its modern significance. The "practical" courses not only afford the natural opportunity for this, they are urgently in need of the illumination that comes from skillfully laid historical perspectives; moreover, most topics gain enormously in weight and dignity when so treated. The handling of educational concepts as growth demanding development in accurate and disciplined thinking on the part of the student is an essential characteristic of instruction that may properly be considered of collegiate quality.[2]

There is, undoubtedly, a firm conviction on the part of many teachers that subject-matter and methods must be separated, the latter following the former in every case.... There should be no question of teaching subject-matter and methods simultaneously as diverse objects of attention; it is rather a matter of utilizing the actual experiences of the student in learning in order to throw light upon his later problem of teaching.... The large problem of organizing subject-matter for teaching and of indicating the points of view at which the teacher's emphasis must fall can in general be solved nowhere so well

[1] *Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Bulletin Fourteen*, p. 183.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 186.

as in the subject-matter course itself. Whether it be a "review" or a "new view," the student's experiences in learning or rehearsing will form the best concrete basis for an understanding of the special pedagogy of the subject. While these experiences are fresh, they should be studied and discussed to the end that they may be registered in the student's mind and be subject to recall when he himself essays the teacher's task. Thus his whole education sensitizes him to the learning process; it is not too much to say that the skillful teacher is one who can recall most clearly the successive steps of his own mastery, and through these reconstruct in imagination the situation which the pupil is facing.[1]

This is a general statement of what is meant by a professional treatment of subject-matter and also an argument favoring the adoption of the procedure of combining the teaching of the materials with the teaching of the history, psychology, and those other phases that are usually embraced in the term "method." We need a more specific formulation of those phases before proceeding to the presentation of the study of language and grammar from this point of view.

Details of the professional attitude. — Following up Professor Bagley's argument in *Bulletin Fourteen* of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Dr. Randolph has set out the specific interests to be taken into account. He says:

At bottom "professional attitude" means only that the teacher of teachers shall be so sensitive to the needs of the service and so well acquainted with the characteristic pressures upon the public school teacher that he will consciously shape his instruction in the interest of both.[2]

[1] *Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Bulletin Fourteen*, p. 231.

[2] Randolph, E. D. — *Professional Treatment of Subject Matter*, p. 128.

Applying this general statement to the particular situation, we have, says Dr. Randolph, three specific things that are implied in "professional attitude" toward any kind of subject-matter.

1. Now, as in the beginning, familiarity with the actual materials to be taught must be placed first.... Experience has amply supported the belief that effective teaching implies the teacher's possession of knowledge far beyond what can be taught to his students. *New* and *wider* views of the possibilities of *familiar* material must be secured.[1]

2. The professional education of teachers involves not merely the extending of intellectual controls in the field of knowledge, but such extensions as are most pertinent to the teacher's problems and the social purposes of public education.[2]

3. The professional attitude will lead to searching out "the condition of the learner" and the adaptation to it in such a way as to leave with the learner deposits of technique for future use.[3]

These three attitudes — an extended knowledge of the materials of the subject; a knowledge of its history as a part of the school curriculum, of how it has been taught and of the success or failure of these past uses; and, finally, a knowledge of the psychology of the subject, that is, of how best to use the materials so as to produce the desired effects — are appropriate in dealing with any of the subjects in the curriculum. When one approaches a particular subject, one may find still other phases of professional treatment that may be applicable and that should be used as effectively as possible.

The application to grammar. — There is no school subject that has been more widely experimented with than grammar. It has run the whole gamut from the

[1] Randolph, E. D. — *Professional Treatment of Subject Matter*, p. 128.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 129. [3] *Ibid.*, p. 129.

high note of the Middle Ages, when Latin grammar was almost the sole item in the curriculum, down to the time, about fifteen years ago, when it reached the bottom. Then a teacher or superintendent who retained grammar as a separate study in his school, or had it taught in a systematic way in the "language" studies, ran the risk of being set down as a conservative "back number." This attitude, somewhat modified, still persists. One may safely scatter through the many pages of a two- or three-book language series all the useful and useless facts of grammar and still hold a place among the progressives; one might thus scatter only the functioning, useful items and be held very modern and progressive; but it is still hazardous to teach in a direct and summarizing fashion the grammar of our language in a systematic, organized way — the way that is implied in the word "formal."

Despite the fact that grammar has gone the whole length of the scale, it has not gone out. We have discovered in the generation that has recently finished its course in high school and college, without, in most cases, any systematic study of the grammar of the language, a lack of something which it would be good for them to have. Something valuable is missing. Young people have come through the schools without acquiring that possession of a mastery of their language, its laws, its usage, its fine points, which might have enabled them to employ it well in speech and writing — a knowledge that would have made them able to judge for themselves whether their constructions in speech and writing were in accord with customary good usage.

The schools are again turning to grammar. They are expecting teachers not only to be able to use good English and to know when they are speaking and writing in harmony with good usage but to be able also to teach grammar to children. To be sure, the grammar they will teach is much reduced from the amount and kind that the older textbooks presented. Every item of it is being closely scrutinized to discover whether, in the first place, it is true, and whether, in the second, it " functions " ; that is, whether a mastery of the given item of grammar will serve to help the pupil, in looking forward as he constructs his sentences or in looking back over a sentence already spoken or written, to *know* that he is using an approved form. Of course, the formation of habits of unhesitating accuracy and, through these habits, the gaining of freedom of expression, is the highest aim hoped for ; but that can come only through knowledge and much use.

To meet this revived interest in the effective teaching of grammar the teachers colleges have three choices in making up a course in grammar for prospective teachers. They can offer a " review course," a " method course," or a course treating the subject-matter of grammar from the professional standpoint. In view of the conditions existing in the schools and the wisdom that has been acquired through many trials and failures, or trials and partial successes, the latter choice seems the only one that can be justified.

The program for the professional study of grammar. — The topics involved in the study of grammar by those who are to teach it to children are :

1. The history of the English language.

2. The history of the teaching of English grammar in the schools. This is, of course, only that section of the history of education that deals with language teaching, separated from the whole volume of the history of education and applied to a single subject, where it properly belongs and can function.

3. The aims of grammar teaching. What are its educational values? In view of aims and values, what items in English grammar can be justified for school use?

4. The psychology of grammar teaching. Instead of depending upon a detached course in the psychology of the elementary school subjects to take care of this phase of the teaching of English, the part of such a course that has to do with grammar will be presented in the course in grammar where it properly belongs.

5. The subject-matter itself. The minimal essentials of grammar that the pupil should know will be clearly defined and then the fuller treatment of the grammar presented in such a way as to give the teacher that ample margin of knowledge which is so essential to success in teaching.

6. Tests and devices for measuring attainments and progress in the use of English.

7. The available literature (books, textbooks, and magazine articles) dealing with the teaching of language and grammar in the schools, including current textbooks for use in elementary and junior high schools.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

1. Bagley, W. C., and Others — *Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Bulletin Fourteen.*
2. Randolph, E. D. — *The Professional Treatment of Subject Matter*, Chapter III.

CHAPTER I

Families of Languages and Their Branches

How families of languages originate. — Imagine a primitive people with a common ancestry living in a fertile land and developing common social customs and a language understood by all throughout their country. Any one of the group could understand the speech of any other. Suppose the land should become crowded, and reports of unoccupied rich lands should be brought in from valleys beyond mountain ranges to the northeast, rivers to the northwest, and an arm of the sea to the west. Bands of emigrants would set out for the new lands bearing with them the customs of their old home, including the language that had been developed there. Let us assume that the language thus far has not been reduced to writing or print. Separation from the original stock and contacts with new situations would eventually bring about differences in the languages spoken in the new settlements. The tribe that went to the northeast would invent new words to represent things unknown in the ancestral home. Climatic or other influences might in a few generations bring about differences in pronunciation of words common to both. The old stock or the new might form the habit of running two words together or of clipping a syllable from an old word. In time the languages of the two, while still essentially alike in con-

struction, would sound so different that a traveler from one land to the other might be unable to understand the language of the visited region or to make himself understood.

In the meantime the tribes formed by those who went to the northwest and west would each evolve language differences — differences from each other's as well as from the mother tongue. Thus there would be developed four languages similar in many particulars but so different in others that the dwellers in the four lands could not understand each other. The diagram (Figure 1) indicates the possible diversity as well as the kinship of the several tribes.

Distance and high mountains separate the Mother Country from the Northeast Tribe. Distance and a broad river separate the Northwest from the homeland. A greater distance and two rivers, or a shorter distance and an arm of the sea separate the Western Tribe from the Mother Country. But intercourse between W. and N. W. is apparently not difficult. However, any kind of communication between W. and N. E. would seem to be most difficult of all. If all of the factors of distance and difficulty of communication operate, we should expect each of the three new tribes to develop differences in language from that originally used by all. Even the language of M. is not static. A spoken language is always growing, changing. Of the new dialects, those spoken by W. and N. W. are likely to be more nearly alike than any other two, while the greatest divergence will probably be between W. and N. E. In all of this we are assuming that there is no reason why there

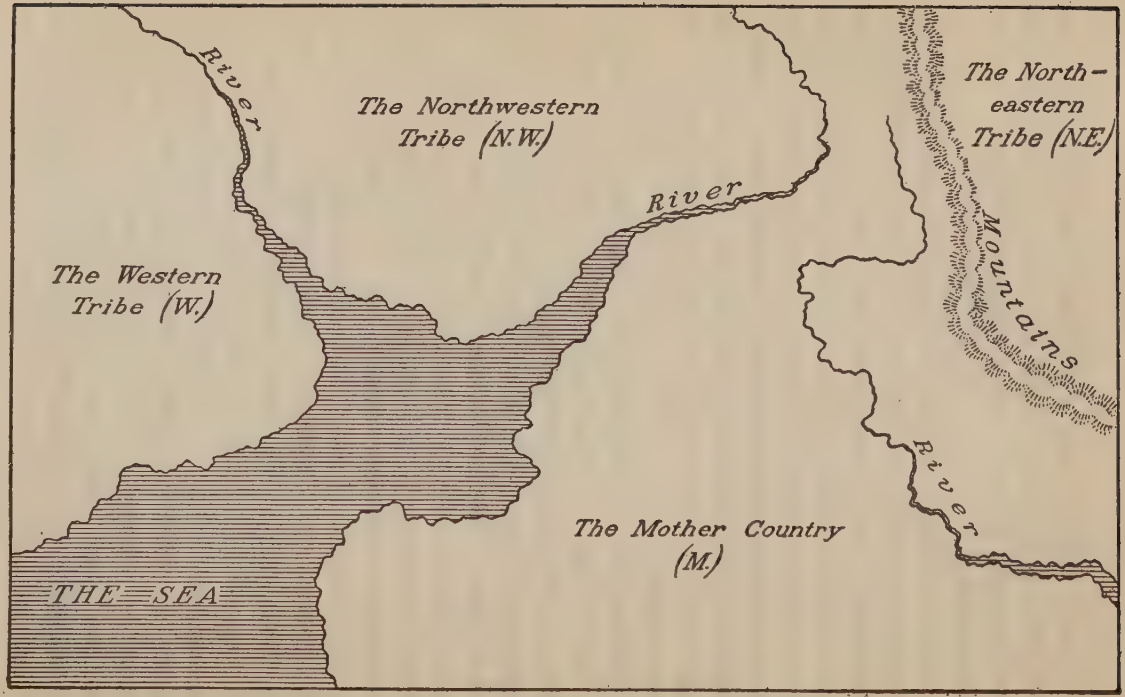

FIG. 1. — HOW FAMILIES OF LANGUAGES ORIGINATE.

should not be communication between W. and N. W. If it were necessary to maintain constant trade among the four, as it would be if grain for bread could be grown only in M., the changes might be very slight. On the other hand, long-continued hostility preventing communication between the neighboring W. and N. W. might produce the widest divergence between these two.

Now, to make clear what we mean by families of languages and branches of those families, let us construct a more complex diagram (Figure 2) illustrating further the divisions of related languages.

Families of languages. — A traveler who visits many lands and is curious about languages will discover that they seem to group themselves into families. Among oriental peoples he will discover similarities in words and in grammar. He will find similarities of the same kind among the dwellers in southwestern Asia or among the tribes of American Indians. These will not be sufficient to enable one who understands Japanese to understand Chinese nor one who understands Russian to understand Italian; but the likenesses between the former will be sufficient to place them in one family of languages totally different from the family to which the latter belong. *A family of languages is a group bound together by unmistakable likenesses in words and grammatical forms.*[1]

Branches of the language families. — A branch of a family of languages is a smaller group of languages that has, in addition to the general similarities of words and grammatical forms that characterize a family, a certain

[1] Emerson, O. F. — *History of the English Language*, p. 1.

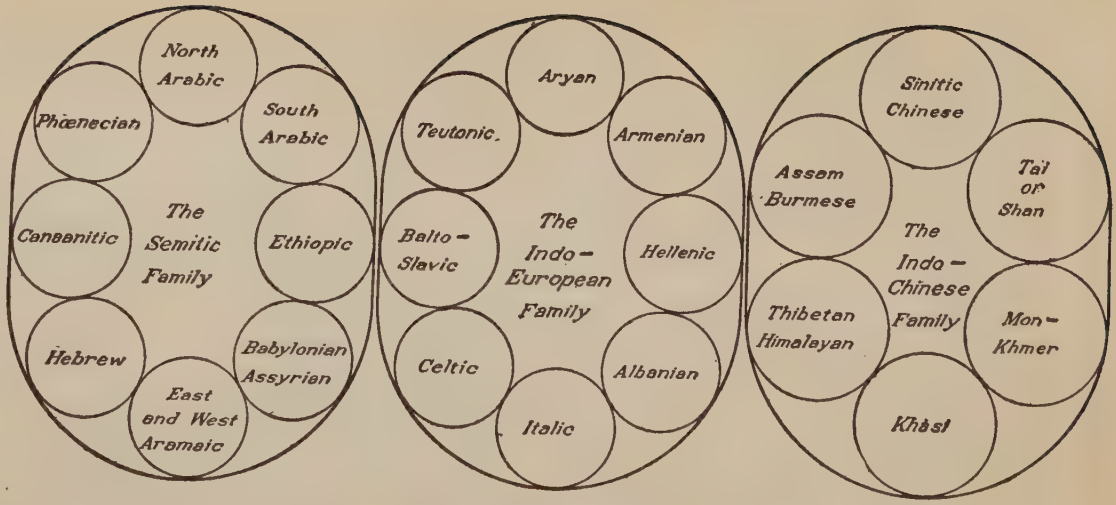

FIG. 2. — THREE OF THE FAMILIES OF LANGUAGES.

The divisions shown in the diagram of the Semitic family represent groups and sub-groups rather than branches. Usually only two branches are indicated for this family — the Arabic, or Southern, and the Aramæan, or Northern.

closer similarity in words and grammatical forms noticeable in the smaller group but not common to members of the family outside of the one branch. English, German, French, and Spanish all belong to the Indo-European family, but English and German belong to the Teutonic branch, while French and Spanish belong to the Italic branch. There will be found in all four languages certain similarities in both words and grammar; but, in addition to these, French and Spanish will show likenesses that do not appear in English and German. English and German will also exhibit similarities that are not seen in the two Romance languages. Illustrations of these family and branch resemblances will be given a little later.

The Indo-European family of languages. — The common source of the languages that make up the family to which Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Celtic, German, English, French, Spanish, Italian, Norwegian, Russian, and the many other modern European languages belong has not been preserved in a literature. No one believes that these have all developed from Sanskrit or Greek; but it seems reasonably certain that there was once a single language spoken by a homogeneous people from which directly or indirectly all of these languages grew. It is not known with any certainty where this people lived. From the likeness of words in the earliest preserved descendants of this primitive speech we know that the people were engaged in agriculture, that they possessed cattle and sheep, and that they lived in a country that had snow in winter and was wooded with trees common to the temperate zone. Before the time of modern scientific

research — that is, up to sixty or seventy-five years ago — it was taken for granted that the home of this primitive stock was somewhere in the interior of western Asia, perhaps in the region of northern Persia. More recent studies seemed to find good reason for transferring the home of the Aryans to Europe somewhere near the southern end of the Baltic Sea. The consensus of scholarly opinion at the present time is against this supposition, however. It seems now that the most likely place is the region partly in Asia and partly in Europe extending from the lower end of the Caspian Sea westward to include the lands around the Black Sea in southern Russia.

Branches of the Indo-European family. — To the Indo-European family belong eight well-defined branches: (1) the *Aryan,* including Sanskrit, Pali, and Persian; (2) the *Armenian;* (3) the *Hellenic;* (4) the *Albanian;* (5) the *Italic,* including classic Latin, and modern Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese; (6) the *Celtic,* including Welsh, Cornish, Gaelic, and Manx; (7) the *Balto-Slavic,* including Russian, Bulgarian, Czech, and Polish; (8) the *Teutonic,* including High and Low German, Dutch, Flemish, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, and English. Our language is therefore one of the eight modern languages that together constitute the Teutonic branch of the Indo-European family.[1] In view of these facts, it will be necessary to trace the history of English and the grammar of English primarily in the company of the other Germanic, or Teutonic, languages rather than as an outgrowth of the Greek and

[1] Jespersen, Otto — *Growth and Structure of the English Language.*

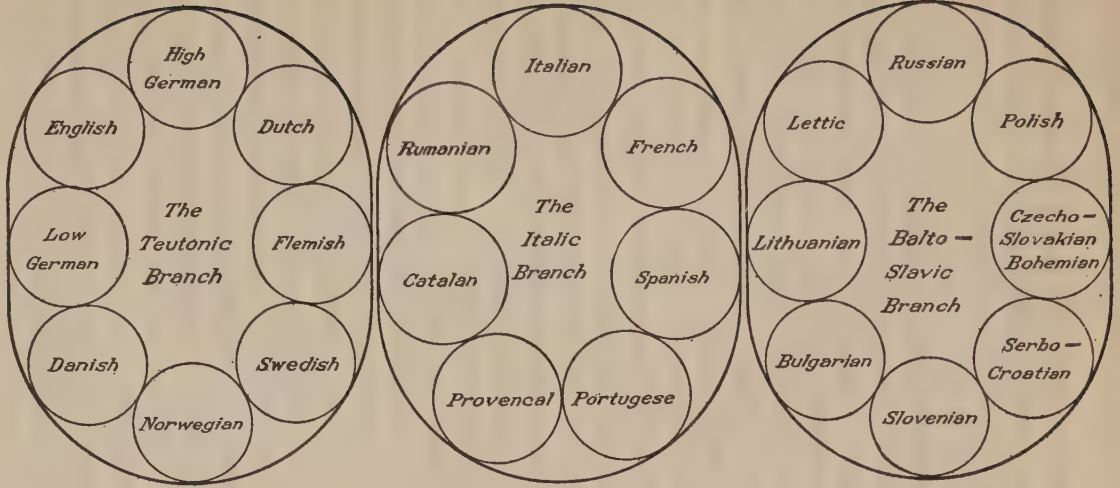

FIG. 3. — BRANCHES OF THE INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY OF LANGUAGES.

Latin languages, as was the custom of grammarians before the study of philology showed the relationships of the several branches of the Indo-European family of languages.[1]

The student will notice (Figure 3) that we have here in these three branches of the Indo-European family all languages spoken by the larger national groups of the western world, and that each of the three branches centers about one core language: the Italic or Romance branch about classic Latin, the Balto-Slavic about Russian, and the Teutonic about the common source of German and English.

Similarities of the languages of the Indo-European family. — It has already been shown that all the languages in any given family must have similar features that are not seen in languages belonging to other families, and it has been suggested that these likenesses are in the words themselves and in the grammar. The Indo-European family is made up, as we have seen, of eight branches. If these branches really belong to one family, there should be some words common to all of them but unknown to other families of languages, such as the Semitic or the Indo-Chinese. And if there are such words, they will be old words to express things, relations, and acts known to men from the simplest and remotest times. They will be words expressing family relationships; notions connected with obtaining and using food, clothing, and shelter; and names of objects and actions

[1] For a complete list of the languages both early and modern which make up the eight branches, the student should consult such works as: Emerson, O. F. — *History of the English Language;* and Scott, H. F., and Carr, W. L. — *Development of Language.*

known from primitive times until now. Such words as *father, mother, brother, sister; house, land, grain, bread; sheep, deer, dog, day, night, sun, moon, strike, stand, walk, run,* and *is* should be somewhat similar in the languages of the Indo-European family.

Let us try a few of them in a half dozen of the better known languages of this family.

Sanskrit	*Greek*		*Latin*	*French*	*German*	*English*
pitar	πατήρ	(pätâr)	pater	père	vater	father
matar	μάτηρ	(mätâr)	mater	mère	mutter	mother
bhratar	φράτηρ	(phräter)	frater	frère	bruder	brother
stha	στῆναι	(stenai)	stare	——	stehen	stand
asti	ἐστί	(esti)	est	est	ist	is

While the words are not identical in the several languages, there is sufficient likeness to warrant the assumption that languages having these words in these forms are related. But one might say that the similarity in the pronunciation of the German *vater,* Latin *pater,* and English *father* is mere accident. The objection would be valid if it were not for the fact that other resemblances are so frequent, and that the changes which occur in making the progress from a primitive to a modern language follow known laws.

Besides the similarities in the words themselves there are grammatical characteristics that belong to the Indo-European group and that appear in all the languages of that family but which are not seen in other families of languages. The most noticeable of these is inflection. By the use of this device this family of languages indicates the relations that the words bear to each other in sentences by means of different forms or endings for

variations of gender, case, number, tense, and voice. Chinese has no such inflections of any kind; while Turkish, which has inflections, has entirely different ones from those of the Indo-European family.

Similarities in certain branches of the Indo-European family not common to the whole family. — The principal likenesses that indicate a common family relationship, as has already been shown, are in words and grammatical forms. The same kinds of likenesses characterize the branches of the family. A few simple old words, names for the experiences of a primitive people, will be found in all the languages that constitute a family; and the way of making words will be alike in a general way for all. But more words will be found alike in two languages of the same branch, and the grammatical similarities will be closer than can be traced through all the languages of the family. For example, Italian and Spanish are both modern outgrowths of Latin. They belong to the Italic branch. These languages will exhibit word and grammar developments that run back through Latin to the common source; but in addition to these likenesses they will show many that do not appear in all members of the family. The same is true of German and English, two prominent representatives of the Teutonic branch. As was shown in a previous section, the words for *father* and *mother* appear in recognizable modifications in all of the Indo-European languages, but such close similarities in both words and grammar as are shown below in a comparison of German and English are not common to the four languages listed here.

The close kinship of German and English is seen in the

similarity of such words as *knave, Knabe; wagon, Wagen; maiden, Mädchen; wife, Weib; holt* (a *wooded grove*), *Holz; house, Haus;* and *hard, hart.* It can be seen also in the common use of the *-s* or *-es* ending to form the genitive (possessive) form of nouns, as in *the book, das Buch* (Nom.); *the book's, des Buches* (Gen.); *the song, das Lied* (Nom.); *the song's, des Liedes* (Gen.); *the man, der Mann* (Nom.); *the man's, des Mannes* (Gen.). The student should bear in mind, however, that the English *'s* is not commonly used except with nouns that are really capable of possessing something. We prefer *of the book,* and *of the song* rather than the possessive forms.

A third close resemblance between English and German, linking them together in a branch distinct from the Italic, or Romance, languages is seen in the use of *er* and *est* to form the degrees of comparison for adjectives. In English we say:

long	longer	longest
old	older	oldest
clear	clearer	clearest
thick	thicker	thickest

In German these same words appear with the same forms used in comparison:

lang	länger	längdst	(am längsten)
alt	älter	ältest	(am ältesten)
klar	klärer	klärst	(am klärsten)
dick	dicker	dickst	(am dicksten)

Every language a growth. — There have been a number of attempts to create whole languages at once.

Within recent years the desire to have a universal or international language has prompted men to make scientifically constructed languages. Volapük was tried. Esperanto is another. The latter has many qualities which have given it a promise of success; but in spite of the fact that the world needs a common language for scientific, social, and commercial intercourse, in spite of the fact that a common language would promote international understanding and go far towards removing national prejudices, neither Esperanto nor any other "made" language is likely ever to be generally adopted.[1] From a hundred and fifty to a hundred and eighty millions of people in the world speak English as their native language; eighty millions or more speak German; from fifty to sixty millions speak each of the Romance languages — Spanish, French, and Italian. It is probably a safe estimate to say that no one of the artificial, "universal" languages was ever spoken by a hundred thousand. The language of a nation is one of the most important elements of its social heritage. It is almost as sacred to a nation as its social customs of family life, government, law, and the church. Every nation regards its language with a strong predilection amounting almost to reverence.[2] This is because language is not merely an intellectual affair. The language of any people has been a long and a slow growth. In its long course it has been the medium through which the people have expressed not only their ideas but their feelings as well.

[1] Krapp, G. P. — *Modern English*, p. 38.

[2] The Poles have kept their language in spite of the partition of their nation among three other nations speaking two different languages, and despite every effort made to stamp out Polish.

English is a language that has had its long and slow growth. As a written language it has recorded in narrative, in story, and in song the history and the emotions of the slow upward and forward struggles of a great people. Not only that, but for generation after generation it has voiced the highest thought and the deepest feeling of individual men and women, who have thus come to love the instrument through which these thoughts and aspirations have been expressed.

The fundamental formal differences of the Teutonic languages from those of the older Aryan (Indo-European) family. — There is another matter about which the teacher should have a general knowledge, even though he may have no occasion to teach it to anybody else. This is the fundamental change which the Teutonic languages (we are now considering particularly German and English) have undergone since breaking away from the parent stem. These differences are highly technical. There is no reason for teaching them to the elementary or high school student, but they should form a part of that "margin of knowledge" which was mentioned in the Introduction. The teacher should know a great deal more than he may ever be called upon to teach; but there are items of technical information that he does not need to master in detail so as to carry them about in memory ready for use upon a moment's notice. Such matters need often be known only in a general way, but in addition the teacher should know where to find them in accurate detail.

The differences referred to are: (1) The first (or great) consonant shift, often called " Grimm's Law." (2) The

accent of Teutonic words. (3) The two-fold declension of adjectives. (4) The verbal system.

Notice has already been directed to the fact that the Latin and Greek *pater* becomes *vater* and *father* in German and English. In a similar way Latin *tres* becomes English *three*, and Latin *cornu* becomes a very unlike word, *horn*, in English. A Danish scholar, Rasmus Rask, published in 1818 a report on the regularity of this consonant shifting. Four years later Jacob Grimm worked out the law of these shifts in detail. On this account the statement has frequently been called "Grimm's Law." His statement has been corrected and refined by later scholars and supplemented by Verner's Law so that now a scholar is able to take a primitive word in Sanskrit, Greek, or Latin, and predict what form it will take in the Teutonic languages. Or having an English word he may build back through history and construct the form it probably had in the forgotten Indo-European original. Stated briefly, the law of the first consonant shift (Grimm's Law) is as follows: The initial consonants of Sanskrit, Greek, or Latin words, our nearest approach to primitive Indo-European, are transformed in the Teutonic languages. A *t* sound is made into *th* (*tres*, *three*); *p* is made *f* (*pater*, *father*); *k* becomes *h* (*cornu*, *horn*); any *b*, *d*, *g*, *bh*, *dh*, *gh* is shifted into a consonant similarly made by the vocal organs. The word *beech* will illustrate these changes. In Sanskrit the word is *bhaj* (meaning to divide or share). In Greek it is *φαγειν*, *phagein* (to get one's share, to eat). *ειν* is an ending. The word is *φαγ*, *phag*, *φαγός*, *phagos* (*oak*, a tree yielding something to eat). Latin has *fag-us*

(*beech*). English has *beech*. The initial consonants *bh*, (*ph*), *f*, and *b* are different and yet similarly made by the vocal organs.

Verner's Law. — Verner's Law was formulated to take care of some apparent exceptions to Grimm's Law. In brief, it is this:

Except when in contact with voiceless consonants, or unless the early Teutonic accent inherited from Indo-European rested on the vowel next preceding, the Teutonic medial voiceless spirants *f*, *th*, *h* (*hw*), *s* (from Indo-European *p*, *t*, *k* (*ku*), *s*) became the corresponding voiced spirants *v*, *th*, *g* (*gw*), and *z*. Final *s* likewise became *z*.[1]

These laws are invaluable to the philologist, the scientific student of language, but for the elementary or high school teacher it is necessary only to know that languages develop from earlier related languages and that in their development they follow fairly regular and fairly well-known laws.

The accent of Teutonic words. — An advantage that English has acquired in its slow development from Indo-European is a regularity of accent. In the parent language the accent was free. It might fall upon any syllable, as it does in Sanskrit. In Greek the accent moves about, according to rule to be sure, but possibly falling upon the root syllable, possibly on a suffix, as it does in the word meaning *foot*, *ποδός*, *πόδα*, *ποῦς* (podos′, po′da, poûs). The earliest written Teutonic language was a portion of the Gospels translated into West Gothic by Bishop Ulfilas, who lived from 311 to 381. This shows a fixed accent.

[1] Any student who cares to go into the details of these laws and of their application may do so by consulting O. F. Emerson's *The History of the English Language*, pp. 14–30.

The law of the Teutonic accent is as follows:

In general it rested on the root syllable of a word, but in nouns and adjectives, and in verbs derived from either, it rested upon the first syllable of the word, whether root or prefix.[1]

This comparative regularity of accent applies in English to words of Teutonic origin but not necessarily to those from other sources like Latin, Greek, etc. Any regularity in a language makes it easy to learn and to use and is thus an advantage to those who employ it. Those who use English have this simplicity and regularity of accent to be thankful for.

The twofold adjective declension. — After the consonant shift and the regularity of accent comes a third peculiarity of the Teutonic languages, the double declension of adjectives. In German, for example, the adjectives have two sets of endings. One set is employed when the adjective is used in the predicate or as an attribute without a preceding article. When the adjective is used as a substantive or as an attribute with an article, the other set of forms is used. One may observe this in the declension of German weak and strong adjectives with and without the article. This distinction was made in Old English but fortunately it has disappeared in modern English and in the other modern Teutonic languages except German. English with no declension of adjectives is incomparably easier to learn than is German with these two declensions of adjectives running through the four cases, two numbers, and three genders. In German there is a possibility of having to make a choice among forty-eight forms of an adjective.

[1] Emerson, O. F. — *The History of the English Language*, p. 31.

The Teutonic verbal system. — The fourth distinction of the Teutonic languages is that of the verbal system. This differs from the system of the other branches of the Indo-European family chiefly in the use of a simple *d* (or *t*) or *ed* ending for the past tense and past participle. The change of the vowel sound is another peculiarity of the Teutonic branch. Changes like *sing, sang, sung; write, wrote, written;* and *bring, brought, brought* are not shared in common with the other languages of this family. The modes and tenses in Teutonic verbs are very simple, and the inflected passive voice has almost disappeared. So far as modern English is concerned it is entirely gone. We have no verb that is passive, but the effect of the passive voice is obtained by the use of verb phrases. Old English had only one passive verb, *hatan, to call.* The Earl of Surrey used this in the line of poetry, "Bright was her hue, and Geraldine she hight." *Hight* here means *was called.*

In the chapter which follows we shall take up the question of the beginnings of the English as a people and the separation of their language from the continental dialects from which it sprang.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

1. Emerson, O. F. — *The History of the English Language,* Chapters I and II.
2. Jespersen, Otto — *Growth and Structure of the English Language,* Chapter II.
3. Wyld, H. C. — *Historical Study of the Mother Tongue,* Chapters IX and X.

It is suggested that topics for two reports be assigned to individual students to be worked up in connection with this chapter and given as individual contributions or as term papers to be presented to the class.

One of the reports may well be limited to tracing the branches of the Indo-European family of languages from the beginning down to the appearance of Old English as a separate language. The other might deal with such matters as the consonant shift, Verner's Law, vowel change, etc., which account for the differences in the words in the Teutonic branch as compared with the primitive Indo-European.

CHAPTER II

The English People and the English Language

The Roman occupation of Britain. — The first authentic record of a visit to the British Islands by a civilized people is that which tells of Julius Cæsar's expedition in the year 55 B.C. Cæsar at the time was conducting a campaign in Gaul (*Gallic Wars,* Books IV and V) and crossed the narrow channel from France, not with the intention of conquering and occupying the islands but apparently to see what the country was like. His stay was short and resulted historically in nothing more than a brief account of it in his *Commentaries.* It was in the year 43 A.D., ninety-eight years after Cæsar's visit, that the first Roman settlement was made in Britain. Claudius was then emperor. In the year 78 A.D. the Roman general Agricola was sent to organize Britain as a Roman province. From 55 B.C. to 78 A.D. may seem to be but a short while, but the student must remember that these one hundred thirty-three years cover a span nearly equal to that from our Declaration of Independence to the opening of the World War, almost the full period, to date, of the life of the United States as an independent nation.

The Romans did not find a civilization in Britain that in any way compared with theirs. Neither did they find a savage or nomadic people. The country was already vaguely known. It had been referred to as

Albion in a treatise formerly supposed to have been written by Aristotle. The elder Pliny also used that name. The name of the people living in Britain occurs in Greek as *Βρεταvικοί*. The people whom the Romans found in possession of the islands were a Celtic people speaking a language belonging to the Celtic branch of the Indo-European family and similar to the dialects spoken in Spain, Portugal, and in western and northern France before the coming of the Franks and the Romans. But even these were not the original people of the islands. Already there had risen and fallen in this land a people who had been sufficiently skilled and civilized to build, probably as a place of worship, the huge circle of monoliths at Stonehenge on Salisbury Plain, which has endured to our own time. This people had been displaced by the Britons, as the Britons in turn were to be driven from the fertile lands of the south and east to the mountainous parts of the island in the west and north — Wales, Cornwall, and the Highlands of Scotland.

The Roman occupation was intended to be permanent. Legions were sent to police and protect the settlements. Cities were built and walled; roads were constructed so well that some of them are in use to this day; walls were built across the island to protect the settlements from forays by the Britons who had been dispossessed and driven to the Scottish highlands. The first attempt at settlement was made in 42 A.D., and the last Roman soldier was withdrawn in 410 A.D. The period between these dates is sixty-two years longer than that from the landing of the Pilgrims at Plymouth to the present time, and only sixty-six years less than the whole span from

the discovery of America down to the present. We are accustomed to regard the Roman occupation of Britain as a brief episode in British history. Unless we check ourselves we are in danger of falling into the belief that the soldiers of the original legions who went over to Britain in 42 A.D. stayed all the while and camped in their original tents along the southern coast. Perhaps the Roman occupation was only an incident. If such is the case, the present civilization in America may be nothing more than such an incident. Permanence may be only relative when one considers the long reaches of history.

The pressure of the northern tribes of Goths upon Rome in the fifth century compelled the emperor to call home the legions, first from the farthest outposts of the empire and later from the nearer provinces. The soldiers were withdrawn from Britain in 410, and the settlements were left to themselves.

Pressure from the same general direction as that which threatened Rome soon began to be felt in Britain. With the removal of the soldiers, the dispossessed Celts began to encroach upon the lands and towns that had formerly been theirs in the south and east. The Roman settlers in Britain had ceased to be a military people. They had long depended upon the legions of professional soldiers for defense. Now that these were gone they made some use of the warlike Teutonic seamen who had from time to time visited the east coast, by securing their aid to drive back the Britons. Gradually the Roman population withdrew and left the struggle for the land to the Britons and the invading German tribes.

Besides the two walls built across the island — the one from the mouth of the river Tyne to the Solway Firth and the other from the Firth of Clyde to the Firth of Forth as marks of their intentions to make their civilization permanent — the Romans had cultivated the land, had gone extensively into the raising of sheep and cattle, and had carried on a considerable commerce with the mother country. They had constructed houses, theaters, temples, and baths as was the custom in Rome. Military roads and walled cities had been built, some remains of both lasting to this day. But the Latin language, which, like any language, might have been expected to outlast walls of stone and paved ways, made little impression at that time on the new language in the process of formation. Nor did the invading Saxons adopt many words from the Celts whom they subdued at that time.

We have in English, it is true, an immense heritage from Latin, the spoken and written language of those Romans who dwelt in England for more than three centuries, but the Latin which influenced English came in at later dates. The Saxon invaders adopted only a few words, and apparently the grammar or form of the Latin language at that time made no impression whatever upon the language of the invaders. The old Roman road from Dover to the northern frontier, through London and York, is called Watling Street. The word "street" is what is left of *strata via* (*a paved way*). This word is preserved in such place names as *Stratford*, *Stratton*, and *Streatham*. The Latin word for *camp* is *castra*. This occurs without addition in *Chester*, and in

combination with older place names, such as *Doncaster* (*Danum-Castra*), the fortified town on the River Don, *Winchester*, *Leicester*, *Worcester*, *Exeter* (*Exanceaster*), and others. Outside of these two words, *castra* and *strata*, the language of the Romans made little immediate impression upon that of the Saxons.

Hengest and Horsa. — So long as Roman soldiers remained in Britain the forays of the Saxons apparently were only summer plundering expeditions upon the exposed eastern coast, known on this account as the Saxon Shore; but soon after the weakening of the Roman military hold began to be apparent, bands of the marauders came more frequently and made longer stays. Tradition has it that in the year 449, thirty-nine years after the withdrawal of the last of the Roman legions, Vortigern, the king of the Roman Britons, asked the two Saxon chiefs, Hengest and Horsa, to assist him in driving back the Celts. In that year these chiefs landed on the coast of Kent, and, as they had promised to do, aided King Vortigern in his struggle against the Celts. But this done, they did not return to their own country. On the contrary they sent reports back home setting forth the attractiveness of the new country and the weakness of its possessors. As a result, new and more numerous invaders, or settlers, whichever you may choose to call them, came to Britain. It is not likely that whole tribes migrated all at once and took possession of all the land at one time; but the greater probability is that groups of emigrants in companies large enough to take possession of sections of the land by force came from time to time over a considerable period of years.

The most important of these invading groups were the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes from the north German lowlands. The home of the Angles, so scholars have surmised, was in the region which is now called Holstein; the Jutes came from the Peninsula of Jutland; and the Saxons from that region now called Schleswig. The great *Ecclesiastical History* of Bede is the authority for the dates of the coming of the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, as it is also the authority for fixing the original homes of these tribes in certain areas of Germany. But Bede wrote nearly three hundred years after the landing of the Jutes in Kent, a time somewhat less than that between the landing of the Pilgrims and the present. History in his day lacked the accuracy it has at present. One may doubt the exactness both of his chronology and his geography. If the Jutes came from the peninsula of Jutland, then their language should have been similar to that of the Danes, who came later and settled in Northumberland. This similarity does not appear. Its absence has led philologists to look elsewhere for the home of the Jutes. Professor Jespersen says:

> Neither the language of the Anglians nor that of the Kentish people is Danish or shows any signs of closer relationship with Danish than does West Saxon; so that, if the settlers came from Angle and other parts of Jutland, these districts cannot then have been inhabited by the same Danish population that has lived there as far back as ascertained history reaches. The continental language that shows the greatest similarity to English is Frisian, and it is interesting to note that Frisian has some points in common with Anglian, some even with the northernmost division of the Anglian dialect, points in which these Old English dialects differ from the West Saxon. Kentish resembles more particularly West Frisian,

and Anglian East Frisian, facts which justify us in looking upon the Frisians as the neighbors and relatives of the English before their emigration from the continent. We may therefore speak of an Anglo-Frisian language, forming in some respects a connecting link between German Saxon (Low German) on the one hand and Scandinavian on the other.[1]

This relationship is indicated in the diagrams from Emerson shown on pages 42–43.

King Arthur and the twelve great battles. — The later struggle against the invasion of the Northmen is recorded in the fairly authentic *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, but reports of the efforts to ward off the Saxon invasion three hundred years earlier are no more than tradition. The legends of King Arthur tell how the Britons united under the leadership of this heroic prince and fought twelve battles, falling back to the rocky defenses of Wales and Cornwall, and how finally in the vicinity of "dark Tintagil by the Cornish sea," King Arthur was defeated and slain. Unfortunately there is no sound historical basis for this fine story of heroism handed down to us from the older sources by Sir Thomas Malory and Tennyson. Those who wish to believe these traditions may take some comfort from the probability that for every persistent idealization like this there was once a grain of fact. Whatever may have been the truth about King Arthur and the struggle against the Saxon invaders, we know that out of all the confusion and uncertainty a new Teutonic kingdom was finally set up in Britain.

The first Teutonic settlement in Britain. — The first of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms mentioned is that founded

[1] Jespersen, Otto — *Growth and Structure of the English Language*, pp. 34–35.

by the smallest of the invading tribes, the Jutes, in Kent and the Isle of Wight. The first mention of a West-Saxon kingdom is in the year 519. The Angles settled in Northumbria in 547 and in Mercia and East Anglia soon afterward. The Saxons settled in the parts of England now included in all counties south of the Thames except Kent. Their settlement extended to the region just north of the mouth of the Thames. Separate kingdoms were maintained by these settlers for a long time, as is seen in the names preserved in the designations of the counties of Essex (East Saxons), Sussex (South Saxons), and Middlesex (Middle Saxons). The principal Saxon kingdom was Wessex. No county, however, now bears that name; but it has been revived by Thomas Hardy in his novels located in the section of the country once inhabited by the West Saxons.

How Britain came to be called "England." — The loose federation of the tribes of Angles, Saxons, and Jutes in Britain was first united into the semblance of a kingdom under the rule of Egbert of Wessex in the year 825. They did not call themselves Anglo-Saxons. That descriptive name, made up by combining into a compound word the names of the two larger tribes, was created by modern scholars. The Anglo-Saxon-Jutes called their country *Englaland* and themselves *Englisc*. The *e* was pronounced as short *e* and not as short *i*. In Middle English (the language as it was spoken and written from about 1100 to 1500) the *e* before *ng* was regularly changed to sound like short *i*. Old English *streng* was written and pronounced *string*. *England* for a time was written *Ingland*. Then the spelling swung

back to the original *Eng*, but the pronunciation has remained as if the word were spelled *Ingland*. Thus we see how the Roman province of Britain was transformed into a Saxon kingdom and how it acquired a name from the Angles, which it perversely spelled with an *e* pronounced as *i* in *ing*.

The language of the English. — These tribes of Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, who called themselves English, originally spoke dialects of a common language. By the time they began to produce permanent writing they were using a language common to all, but sufficiently different in the different sections of the country so that a modern scholar can tell whether a given piece produced in the separate little kingdoms is Northumbrian, Kentish, or West Saxon. The two diagrams reproduced on pages 42 and 43 will show something of the origin of this new language and the kinship of Old English to the other languages of the Teutonic branch of the Indo-European family.

These two diagrams show something of the relationships of the Teutonic languages to each other. Figure 4 shows the interrelations of the vanished source languages, and Figure 5 the branching from the old Teutonic stem, first, the branching of the old languages shown in Figure 4 and then of the modern outgrowths of these seven earlier languages.

The diagram on page 42 attempts to show the interrelations of the Teutonic languages before the tribes settled in Britain. If these settlers had been mere sojourners in a foreign land, and if they had kept up frequent communication with the home countries, it is

not likely that they would have developed a new language different from the languages spoken on the continent. But they found Britain to be a good land, well suited to agriculture and to pastoral pursuits. A settled life on farms and in towns came to be more attractive than their old life of pillage by land and sea. No longer

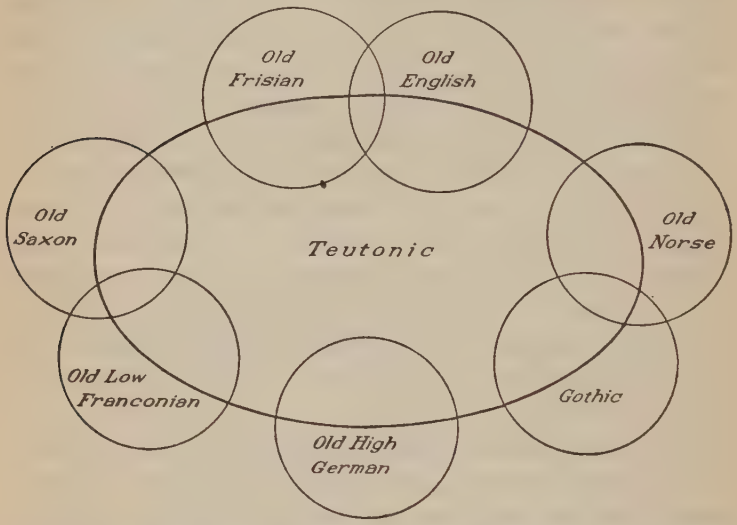

FIG. 4. — THE RELATIONSHIPS ONE TO ANOTHER OF THE OLDER DIVISIONS OF THE TEUTONIC LANGUAGE. (ADAPTED FROM A DIAGRAM ON PAGE 12 OF "HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE," BY O. F. EMERSON.)

were they seafaring fighters. They came to think of Britain, or "England" as it is now to be called, as their permanent home. Cut off from the continent, the Angles and Saxons came to use a speech slightly different in words and in pronunciation from that of the old home. This is the natural way with language. Even

with as close communication as we have to-day with England there are differences in speech which unmistakably mark the American or the Englishman. For example, in America *all* is pronounced *awl*. In England it is nearly *ole*. In America *want* usually means *desire*. In England it is commonly used for *lack*. In England *connection* is spelled *connexion; honor, honour*, etc.

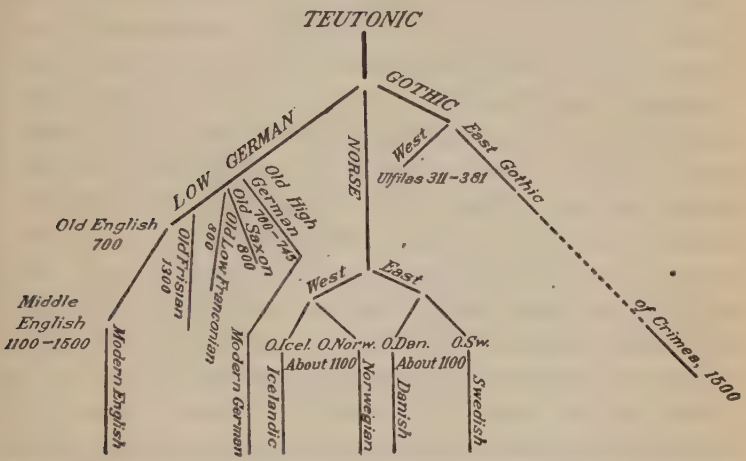

FIG. 5. — THE APPROXIMATE RELATIVE AGES OF THE VARIOUS TEUTONIC LANGUAGES AND THE APPROXIMATE TIME OF THEIR SEPARATION. (ADAPTED FROM A DIAGRAM ON PAGE 13 OF "HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE," BY O. F. EMERSON.)

The coming of the Norsemen. — By the middle of the ninth century the English language was well established. Based upon the Low German dialects in grammar and words, it had borrowed words sparingly from the native Britons and a very few from the Latin; but now there came in a new element that exerted a greater influence

than any before it. This resulted from the invasion by the Danes. Like the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes who harried the Saxon Shore four hundred years earlier, these men from the north came at first as marauders; but *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* records that in the year 851 "Heathen men for the first time over the winter remained." This refers to those men who are always afterward referred to as Danes, but who were in reality Danes and Norwegians. Like their predecessors and kinsmen from the north-German coast, they too found England a good land. And just as tradition records the heroic effort of King Arthur in behalf of the Britons to drive back the invading hosts, so now authentic history tells of the long struggle of the English to repel the Danes. Within a few years, however, these men of the north had taken possession of the whole of England except the kingdom of Wessex along the southern shore, which was successfully defended by Alfred.

Alfred died in the year 901, but the struggle with the Danes did not cease with his death. It was successfully continued by his son Edward, and by his grandson Athelstan, who won back for a time almost the whole of England. But Ethelred the Unready, who came to the throne in 978 and ruled till his death in 1016, finally lost to the overwhelming numbers of the invading Danes all that his predecessors had won. In 1017 the Danish King Knut became king of England. He was succeeded in 1039 by his son Hardaknut, and he in 1042 by Edward the Confessor, who occupied the English throne till his death in 1066, and who saw the Anglo-Saxons and the Danes merge into a harmonious and unified nation.

The Danes and the English language. — Kinsmen of these same Northmen had already settled in northern France, where they found a people speaking a language quite different from theirs. Instead of compelling the conquered to adopt and use the language of the conquerors, the Northmen adopted the language of the conquered people, modified as it would be of necessity by the adoption. This new language is Norman-French. When the Danes came to England, they did the same thing, but it was a much simpler process. Old Danish and Old English were closely related languages. It is quite likely that the two peoples could understand each other without great difficulty. At any rate English continued to be spoken and was adopted by the conquerors. Until recently scholars have said that Danish made no perceptible impression upon English, but they now recognize the fact that many Danish words came to be used before 1100, and that quite a number of these were the names of very common things — as, *sky, root, skill* — or indicated common qualities or actions — as, *meek, low, loose, ill, ugly, happy,* and *die, hit, take, call, want.* Another very important Danish influence is upon the grammar of English itself in supplying the plural personal pronoun forms *they, their, them* in place of the Old English forms *hī* or *hīe, hiera, him.*

The records of the Old English speech. — None of the Old English manuscripts now in our libraries were actually copied on the present parchment before the coming of the Danes. *Beowulf* was probably written first about the year 700, but the existing manuscript is about a thousand years old. That is, it was prepared at some time in

the tenth century. Besides this manuscript there are three other volumes of Old English prose and poetry in which are preserved enough of the old literature to make us thoroughly acquainted with the language as it was before the Norman Conquest. Each of these is a collection of pieces. The books are the manuscript called *Junius XI* in the Bodleian library at Oxford, the *Vercelli Book*, discovered in an obscure library at Vercelli, Italy, in 1822 and still kept there, and the *Exeter Book* in the library of Exeter Cathedral.

Periods in the development of English. — It is customary to divide the development of the English language into three periods: (1) Old English (or Anglo-Saxon), from the beginning of its written literature about 700 to the period of the Norman Conquest in 1100; (2) Middle English, from 1100 to 1500; and (3) Modern English, from 1500 to the present.

We have traced the development of the English people and their language through the formative period. We have seen the native Britons displaced by the Angles and Saxons, who laid the foundations of what was to be the English language. These in their turn we have seen conquered by the Danes. But the Danes did not change the language appreciably. When Duke William of Normandy came across the channel in 1066 to assert his claim to the English throne, he brought with him an army of men who were kinsmen of those Danes who had first conquered the Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of England and who had then become so thoroughly blended with the conquered as to be indistinguishable from them. The Northmen who came to France had blended with the

native inhabitants and had adopted a dialect of French as their language, just as the Danes in England had adopted English as theirs.

Already the language of the English had been used to record a considerable literature before the Norman Conquest. English had been a literary language for four hundred years. *Beowulf*, although probably known and recited from memory, was not put into written form until about the year 700. In prose we have in Old English *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, Bede's *Ecclesiastical History*, Pope Gregory's *Pastoral Care*, Boetius' *Consolation of Philosophy*, and Alfred's *Orosius*, to mention only a few. While none of our oldest copies of these works go back to the dates when the pieces were composed, the language of the copies is substantially that which had been standardized as literary English before the Norman Conquest. In order that the student may know how the written language looked and how the spoken language sounded, some examples are shown in the following chapter.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

Four assignments for individual reports are suggested: the first on the history of the period, the second and third on the language, and the fourth on the literature.

1. The reading of the assignment in one of the histories and the assignment in Traill should supply the materials for the first report.

GARDINER, S. R. — *Student's History of England*, pp. 1–96.
GREEN, J. R. — *Short History of the English People*, Chapter I.
TRAILL, H. D., and MANN, J. S. — *Social England*, Vol. I., pp. 116–230.

2–3. Read Emerson, Lounsbury, Wyld, and Toller for the second and third reports.

EMERSON, O. F. — *History of the English Language*, Chapters I and II.

LOUNSBURY, T. R. — *History of the English Language.*

TOLLER, T. N. — *Outline of the History of the English Language*, Chapters I, II, and III.

WYLD, H. S. — *Historical Study of the Mother Tongue*, Chapter XII.

4. Read the appropriate chapters from two or three of the standard histories of English literature for materials for this report.

BROOKE, S. A. — *History of Early English Literature*, Chapters XIII, XIV, XV, XVI.

HALLECK, R. P. — *History of English Literature*, Chapter I.

MOODY, W. V., and LOVETT, R. M. — *History of English Literature*, Chapter I.

NEILSON, W. A., and THORNDIKE, A. H. — *A History of English Literature*, Chapter I.

CHAPTER III

Old English: The English Language Before 1100 A.D.

Old English prose and poetry. — Summarizing the development of the English language up to 1100 — that is, the period of Old English — we find that it originated in Low German dialects, similar to Frisian, once spoken along the coast of the North Sea; that it absorbed a very few words from the Celtic spoken by the Britons whom the Angles and Saxons conquered, and a few words from the Latin used by the Roman occupants of the British Islands; and finally that it was influenced somewhat in its grammar and considerably in its list of words by the coming of the Northmen or Danes. Before carrying the story of the language farther and over into the period following the Norman Conquest, it may be interesting to look at a few specimens of poetry and prose to see what the language was like just before the rapid and widespreading changes brought about by that political movement. The examples which follow (see pages 52–54) are all in the West-Saxon dialect, that form which became the literary language of England largely through the interest of King Alfred (876–901). Three prose specimens, *The Lord's Prayer*, a selection from the Gospel of Mark, and an entry in *The Anglo-Saxon*

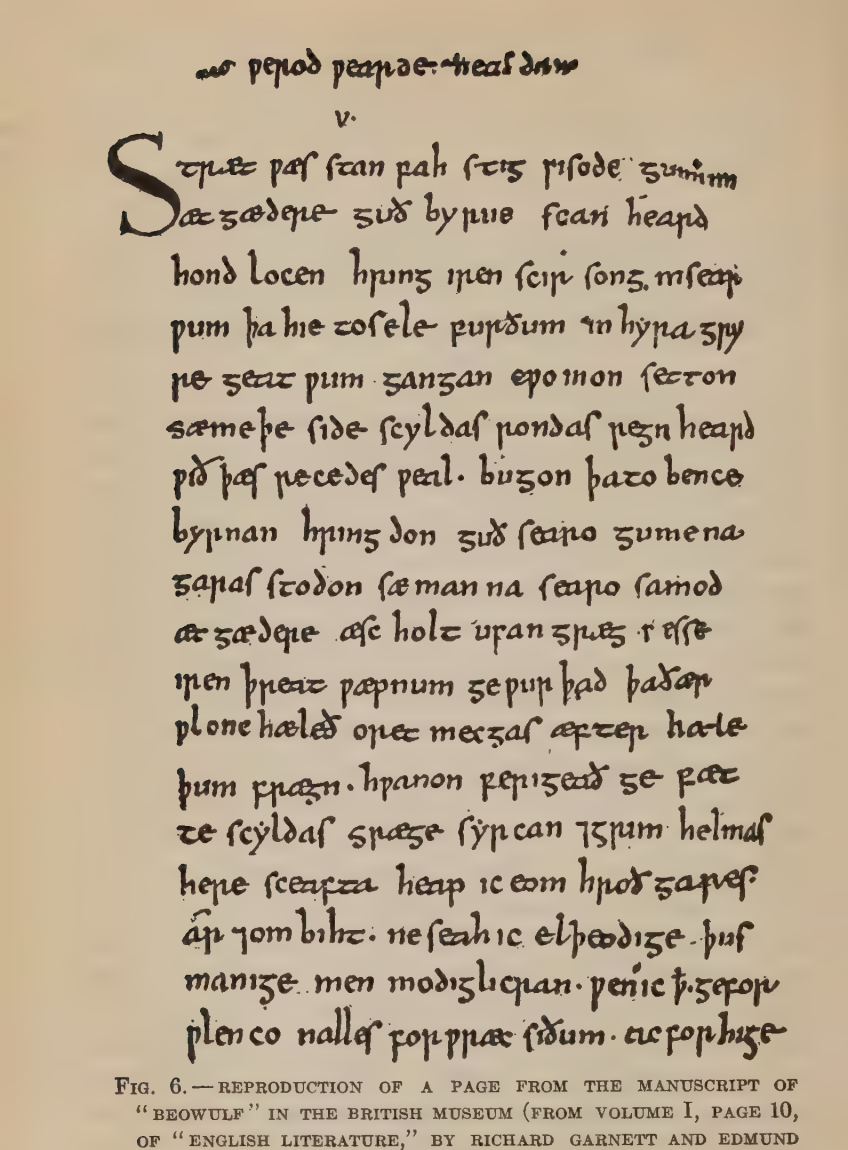

Fig. 6. — Reproduction of a page from the manuscript of "Beowulf" in the British Museum (from volume I, page 10, of "English Literature," by Richard Garnett and Edmund Gosse).

Chronicle, and two poetic specimens, a few lines from the *Battle of Brunanburh*, which was inserted in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* for the year 937, and eleven lines from *Beowulf*, are shown with interlinear translations so that the student may compare Anglo-Saxon words with words of modern English. The reader must, of course, rearrange the order of the words and phrases and supply the definite article here and there to get a smooth modern translation. Anglo-Saxon poetry was designed to be sung and has two accents in the first half of each line and two in the second or, occasionally, two in one half-line and one in the other.

The Old English alphabet. — The appearance of a page of Old English is shown by the half-tone photographic reproduction of a page of the *Beowulf* manuscript. Of course none of these works were printed. All are preserved in handwriting on parchment. The *Beowulf* manuscript that has survived was written in the tenth century, but the story goes back to the fifth or sixth. Only a single copy of it has been preserved, and this, after many adventures, rests now in the British Museum. The edges of the book are charred by the fire which nearly destroyed it in 1731, but we have the complete story as it was copied in 1786 before the charred edges dropped away and thus mutilated some of the words at the ends of lines. To one unacquainted with the script the page is very difficult reading. The Anglo-Saxon alphabet was, however, not very different from that used now. The *k* sound was expressed by *c;* a character called the digraph (æ) and pronounced as *a* in *hat* was used for *ae;* and *th* was represented by the characters ð called *eth*, and þ called *thorn*. There was no *w*.

EXAMPLES OF WEST-SAXON DIALECT

Beowulf

(*Lines 1–11*)

1. Hwæt! wē Gār-Dena in gēar-dagum
   Lo! we of the Spear Danes' in olden days

2. þ ēod-cyninga þrym gefrūnon,
   of the folk-kings the prowess have heard

3. hū þā æþelingas ellen fremedon,
   how the Athelings did noble deeds.

4. Oft Scyld Scēfing sceaþena þrēatum
   Oft Scyld Scefing from the throngs of the scathers

5. Monegum mægþum meodo-setla ofteah.
   from many a people the mead seats reft.

6. Egsode early syþþan ǣrest wearþ
   A cause of terror the earl was since first

7. fēa-sceaft funden hē þæs frōfre gebād
   he was found helpless but he took comfort from that

8. weox under wolcnum, weorð-myndum þāh,
   grew great under the heavens, grew in honors,

9. oþ þæt him æghwylc þāra ymb-sittendra
   till each one of those dwelling round about

10. ofer hron-rāde hȳran scolde
    across the whale road must obey him

11. gomban gyldan þæt wæs gōd cyning!
    must pay tribute that was a good king!

The Lord's Prayer

Fæder ure, þū þe eart on heofenum Si þin nama gehalgod
Father our, thou that art in the heavens Be thy name hallowed

to becume þin rīce Geweorþe þin willa on eorþan, swa swa on
arrive thy kingdom Be done thy will on earth, just as in the

heofenum Urne dæghwamlican hlaf syle us to dæg And forgyf us
heavens. Our daily loaf give us to day And forgive us

ūre gyltas, swa swa we forgifaþ urum gyltendum And ne gelæde þū
our debts, just as we forgive our debtors. And not lead thou
us on costnunge, ac alȳs us of yfle. Soþlice.
us into temptation, but loose us from evil. Truly.

St. Mark's Gospel

(Chapter IV, verses 1–9)

And eft hē ongan hī æt þære sæ læran. And him wæs mycel
And afterwards he began them at the sea to teach. And to him was
menegu to gegaderod, swa þæt he on scip ēode, and on þære sæ wæs;
(a) large multitude gathered, so that he on (a) ship went, and on the sea was;
and eall sēo menegu ymbe þa sæ wæron on lande. And hē hī fela on
and all that multitude beside the sea were on land. And he them much in
bigspellum lærde, and him to cwæð on lis lāre, Gehyrað: Ūt ēode sē
parables taught, and to them spoke in his lore, Hear: Out went the
sædere his sæd to sawenne. And þā hē sēow, sum fēoll wiþ þone
sower his seed to sow. And when he was sowing some fell beside the
weg, and fugelas cōmon and hit fræton. Sum fēoll ofer stānscyligean,
way, and fowls came and it devoured. Some fell over stone-shelley (ground),
þar hit næfde mycel eorðan, and sōna ūp ēode, and for þan hit næfde
there it did not have much earth, and soon up sprang, and because it did not have of the
eorðan þiccnesse, þā hit ūp ēode, sēo sunne hit forswælde, and hit
earth thickness, when it sprang up, the sun it scorched and it
forscranc, for þam hit wyrtruman næfde. And sum fēoll on þornas;
withered, because it roots did not have. And some fell among thorns;
þā stigon þa þornas and forðrysmodon þæt, and hit wæstm ne bær.
then sprang up the thorns and suffocated that, and it fruit bore not.
And sum fēoll on gōd land, and hit sealde ūpstīgende and wexende
And some fell on good land, and it sprang up quickly and grew
wæstm; and ān brohte þrītigfealdne, sum syxtigfealdne, sum
fruit; and one brought thirtyfold, some sixtyfold, some
hundfealdne. And he cwæð, Gehȳre sē ðe ēaran hæbbe to gehȳranne.
hundredfold. And he said, Hear ye that ears have to hear.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle

(901 A.D.)

Hēr gefōr Ælfred Aþulfing, syx nihtum ǣr ealra hāligra mæssan.
Here died Alfred son of Ethelwulf six nights before all hallow mass.

Se wæs cynig ofer eall Ongelcyn būtan ðæm dæle þe under Dena
He was king over all England except that part which under the Danes

onwalde wæs; Ond hē hēold þæt rīce oþrum healfun læs þe XXX
authority was. And he held that kingdom other half less than thirty

wintra. Ond þā feng Ēadweard his sunu to rīce.
winters. And then seized Edward his son to the authority.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle

The Battle of Brunanburh

(937 A.D.)

1. Her Æðlstān cynig, eorla drihten
   Here Athelstan king, of earls lord,
2. beorna bēahgifa and his broðor eac
   of chieftains ring-giver; and his brother also
3. Ēademund æðeling ealdorlangne tīr
   Edmund Aetheling lifelong glory
4. Geslogon æt sæcce sweorda eǫgum
   won in battle with swords edges
5. Ymbe Brunanburh Bordweall clufon
   around Braunanburh (the) wall of shields (they) cleaved.
6. heowon heaðolinde hainora lāfum,
   (they) hewed (the) war linden (shield) with leavings of hammers (swords)
7. eaforam Ēadweardes; swa him geæðele wæs
   sons of Edward; so to him befitting (it) was
8. fram cnēomāgum, ðæt hi æt campe oft
   from kinsman that they in battle often
9. wið eaðr geheæne land ealgodon
   against hostile (men) from every quarter land defended.
10. hord and hamas
    hoard (treasures) and homes.

The student will note in such words as *cyninga* (pronounced *kĭ' nĭn ga*) and *æðelingas* (pronounced *ă'thĕ lĭn'găs*) that the Old English made a larger use of inflection than modern English does. Inflectional endings were freely used for gender, number, case, and tense. It is also apparent that many words sound quite like modern English when the endings are dropped, and some words have not changed at all. Notice the similarities between—

Old English	*Modern English*
we	we
cyning	king
hu	how
him	him
oft	oft
meod	meed
gōd	good
rāde (rād)	road
sum	some
fēoll	fell
gyltas	guilts

Some of the old words have been lost. We no longer have *ac* for *but*, *hron* for *whale*, *swa swa* for *just as*, *dæle* for *part* or *portion* (except in the word *deal*—a *good deal*), *somedel* (Chaucer), and *rīce* (pronounced *reechĕ*) for *kingdom*. Still others have been so disguised by spelling or pronunciation or both that they are not easily recognized. Notice Old English, *fugol;* German, *Vogel;* English, *fowl; yfle* with *y* pronounced as short *i* differs little from *evil; fræton* is German *fressen, to devour*. *Lord* is a short form of *hlaford*, which is a shortening of *hlaf* + *weard, loaf ward, bread warder*, and so *food pro-*

vider. In the case of a few words the form used in some dialects or the speech of unlettered people preserves the original pronunciation. *Thar* for *there* preserves Old English *par; hit* for *it* is Old English *hit;* the Scotch *muckle* and *mickle* are the Old English *mycel*.

While the study of the old form of our speech is endlessly interesting, to carry it on here at any length would defeat the purpose of these early chapters, which is mainly to give the student a general knowledge of the history of the English language through its formative period. More extended discussion will be reserved for later chapters.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

1. Emerson, O. F. — *History of the English Language,* Chapter III.
2. Jespersen, Otto — *Growth and Structure of the English Language,* Chapter IV, "The Scandinavian Contribution to the English Language."
3. Jespersen, Otto — *Growth and Structure of the English Language,* Chapter III, "Old English."
4. Toller, T. N. — *Outlines of the History of the English Language,* Chapters IX and X.
5. Wyld, H. C. — *Historical Study of the Mother Tongue,* Chapter XII.

CHAPTER IV

Middle English: The English Language from the Norman Conquest to the Sixteenth Century

The Norman conquest. — The Northmen, who settled in Northern France at about the same time that their kinsmen, the Danes, came to England, had so blended with the Franks by the middle of the eleventh century that they not only spoke a French dialect but had also acquired French customs and manners. The claim of Duke William of Normandy to the English throne was a very thin one but sufficient to warrant an ambitious and not overscrupulous man to press it. When Ethelred the Unready had been dethroned by the Danish King Knut, he took up his residence in Normandy. There his son, Prince Edward, who came to the throne after the death of the second Danish king, Hardaknut, was brought up in the Norman court, thus learning French customs and the French language. Edward called "the Confessor" came to the throne in 1042 and after a long reign died in 1066. The English elected Harold the Saxon to be king, but the Duke of Normandy overcame Harold and took the throne, basing his claim upon a promise exacted from Harold some years earlier.

The language of the conquest. — William made no attempt to compel the English people to adopt and use the Norman-French language; but natural causes soon

brought the language of the conquerors into prominence. Already in Edward's time there was some use of French and a friendly attitude toward it due to the fact that the king and some of the nobles and clergy whom he had brought over from Normandy used that tongue. Now the language of William's court, of social intercourse among the higher classes, and of the courts of law came to be French. English continued to be spoken by the middle and lower classes, while the English people of the upper classes probably learned French in addition to their own tongue, as an accomplishment. The literature of the three hundred years following the Conquest was written in any one of three languages, Latin, French, or English. The chronicle written by William of Malmesbury (1095?–1143?) was in Latin. Henry of Huntingdon (1084–1155) wrote his *History of the English* in Latin. Geoffrey of Monmouth about 1148 wrote his *History of the Kings of Britain,* from which we draw most of the legendary tales of King Arthur, in the same tongue. Wace about 1155 used French for his version of the *History of the Kings of Britain* based upon Geoffrey's Latin version, and called his book *Brut.* The same story was told by Layamon in English early in the twelve hundreds.

No literature of importance after the Conquest appears in the English tongue for nearly a hundred and fifty years, a period long enough to permit a great deal of change in the old language. The student must not, however, get the impression that English was not the language spoken by the great body of the people. All the evidence seems to indicate that English was always

the commonly used language, but that French was the language of polite society and of Parliament and the courts. This would leave English in the position of the common spoken language. A language tends to become fixed and standardized in form when it is the vehicle of a considerable literature that is widely read. The changes that have taken place in English since 1500 are very much fewer in number and less significant than the changes in the preceding four hundred years. The invention of printing, the publication of the King James Bible and its wide distribution and reading by the common people, the making of dictionaries, and the practical elimination of illiteracy have all contributed toward standardizing the forms of words and the grammar of the language. In the three centuries when French and English were in close contact, all of the elements of the situation were favorable to the fusion of the two and to that simplification of the language which grew out of the fusion.

The survival of English. — English has always been slow to yield to encroaching languages. It absorbed but little from the Celtic, though this was spoken by the Britons — neighbors of the Saxons for centuries. It took less from the Romans, whose civilization the Saxons displaced. Even the related language of the Danes did not affect English in any such way as might have been expected. Among the English there was some apprehension that French would finally prevail and that English would die out altogether. Evidence of a patriotic revival of interest in English appears in some of the literature of the time. At the close of Robert of Gloucester's account

of the Norman Conquest the writer says that French was spoken by the upper classes and taught to their children but that " lowe men holdeth to Engliss and to their own speech still." Then he adds: " Ich wene þer ne beþ in al þe world countreyes none, þat ne holdeþ to hor owe speche bote Engelond one." (I suppose there is no country except England alone in all the world that does not hold to its own language.) In 1295 Edward I, in a Latin address to the Archbishop and Clergy, warned the people that if the French King should be successful in the war then in progress, he would utterly destroy the English tongue. About 1340 Ralph Higden in his Latin *Polychronicon* (translated into English in 1385 by John of Trevisa) reported the conditions of the usage at that time. In substance he said:

> Children in school, contrary to usage and manner of all other nations, are compelled to neglect their own language and to construe their lessons and their things in French, and have done so since first the Normans came into England. Also the children of gentlemen are taught to speak French from the time that they are rocked in their cradles.

In 1320 the author of *Cursor Mundi* explained that his book was written in English so that the common people might understand it.

> To lewid and Englis men I spell
> þat understandis quat I can tell.

Sir John Mandeville (probably the pseudonym of a monk who wrote the *Travels*) writing near the middle of the fourteenth century recognizes that the common language is English. He says:

I have put this boke out of Latyn into Frensche, and translated it again out of Frensche into Englyssche, that every man of my nacioun may understonde it.

Finally official recognition of the survival of English as the national tongue was given by the statute of 1362 setting aside the custom of conducting pleadings in law courts in French and requiring that thereafter they should be in English.

How the new English differed from the old. — There were three English dialects represented in the literature before the Conquest: the Northumbrian, the Mercian, and the West Saxon. We have already seen how, through the activity of King Alfred in extending the kingdom of Wessex and in having Latin books translated into the West Saxon form of English, that dialect became the standard English. When we come to examine the newer English, we find the language of these three sections still distinct, each from the other. The people of the North had been more influenced by the Danish than had those of the Middle or South. The language of the West Saxons had not come into such intimate contact with French as had that of the east midland counties. Consequently the beneficial simplifications that came to English through contact with French were less pronounced in the north and south than in the middle. When English once more became a literary language, it was London English (Midland) rather than that of Wessex (Southern) which took the place of leadership. Chaucer, near the close of the fourteenth century, chose to tell his stories in English rather than French. Naturally he used the English with which he

was most familiar. This was the language as it was spoken in London. While London English showed some marks of the southern dialect, it was more nearly that of the midland district than of the South or North. Chaucer's use of London English did not establish that form of the speech as the standard. Without Chaucer the Midland dialect in all probability would have prevailed, but it was a pleasing circumstance that the man who was to produce the *Canterbury Tales* should have been a native of the center in which a standard literary language was in the process of being formed.

How did the new language differ from the old? In the first place there was a remarkable extension of vocabulary. The new language was bilingual, containing a wide variety of words from two branches of the Indo-European family, the Teutonic and the Romance. Having acquired a large vocabulary of short, direct French words, English was not obliged to depend upon cumbersome compounds to make new words. English in the three hundred years, 1100 to 1400, lost most of its inflections. When a language is used almost exclusively in oral communication by the common people, there is a tendency for it to lose inflectional endings. In Old English these endings were unaccented. Consequently they were not distinctly heard. When one is using the telephone, it is not easy to distinguish between such words as *common* and *comma*, *gentlemen* and *gentleman*. In print, one is not mistaken for the other. We have already seen that the adjectives, pronouns, and nouns had inflectional forms for gender, number, and case. The word for *stone* was *stān*. This was declined in the

singular number, thus: nominative, *stān;* genitive, *stānes;* dative, *stāne;* accusative, *stān.* The corresponding plural forms were *stānas, stāna, stānum, stānas.* The word meaning *eye* had four forms: *eāge, eāgan, eāgena,* and *eāgum.* Each of the syllables was pronounced. *Stānes* was not easily distinguished from *stānas* when spoken. Consequently these inflectional endings at first were more or less run together and blurred into a single syllable. *Eāgum* and *eāgan* were both pronounced *eāgu.* Then the meaningless syllable was dropped altogether. Since *stān* had two cases without case endings, the dropping of all endings may have occurred without the intermediate step. At any rate the nouns came through the transformation with *s* or *es* plurals and *'s* for the possessive form. Adjectives lost all inflections. The pronouns lost their inflections for gender, except the pronouns in the third person: *he, she,* and *it.* The most fortunate simplifications were the loss of all inflections for adjectives and the loss of grammatical gender for nouns and adjectives. When we speak of " the long carving knife " we no longer need to decide whether *knife* is masculine, feminine, or neuter before we can choose the correct forms for the definite article *the* and the adjective *long.*

The humor of grammatical gender has often been exploited. One example from the German will suffice here. A masculine *man,* a feminine *woman,* and a neuter *maiden,* sit down at a masculine *table,* beside a feminine *wall,* to eat their neuter *breakfast* with masculine *spoons,* neuter *knives,* and feminine *forks.* An account of an English family at the same meal could be written without any question of the gender forms of the words unless

one should wish to refer to the people or objects by the use of personal pronouns. In that case the sex or lack of it decides which form to use.

To say that Middle English had discarded most of the inflectional forms of Old English does not begin to convey an idea of the importance of that simplification unless one can visualize the ease and simplicity with which modern English is written as compared with the difficulty of writing the complex Old English, burdened with its inflections for number, gender, and case.

At the close of the preceding chapter some examples of Old English as it was written near the close of the period were shown. A comparison of the language of Old English with the specimens of Middle English written about 1350 will show that from the point of view of the modern English reader the language has advanced in four hundred years from an unknown tongue which would have to be studied as one studies a foreign language to a speech, archaic in sound and odd looking in print, but easily recognized as English and understood by the modern reader with but little difficulty and only a few references to a Middle English dictionary.

The first selection given below is a part of the final entry in the *English Chronicle* kept at Peterborough. The date is 1154, eighty-eight years after the Conquest. The second is the opening sentence in the often quoted proclamation of Henry III, made in 1258, nearly two hundred years after the Conquest.

On þis gær wærd þe king Stephen ded & bebyried þer his wif &
In this year was the king Stephen dead and buried where his wife and
his sune wæron bebyried æt Fauresfeld, pæt minstre hi makeden.
his son were buried at Fauresfeld, the minster he built.

þa þe king was ded, þa was þe eorl beionde sæ, ne durste non man
When the king was dead, then was the earl beyond the sea and not durste no man
don oþer bute god for þe micel eie of him. þa he to Engleland
to do other but good for the great awe of him. When he to England
com, þa was he underfangen mid micel wurtscipe & to king bletcæd
came then was he received with great honor and to king blessed
in Lundene on þe Sunmendæi beforen midwinterdæi & held þær
in London on the Sunday before midwinter day and held there a
micel curt.
great court.

Henr', þurȝ (thru) godes fultume (grace) king on Englenloande, Lhoaruerd on Yrloand, Duk on Norm' (Normandy), on Aquitain' and eorl on Aniow (Anjou), Send igretinge to alle hise holde (faithful) ilærde (learned), and ileawede (lewd) (clergy and lay people) on Huntendon' schir.'

Already case endings have begun to disappear: *in þis gaer* in Old English is *on þissum geare; for þe micel eie* in Old English is *for þam miclan egesan; to king* in Old English is *to cyninge.*

The third specimen consists of the opening ten lines of *Piers the Plowman,* written in 1362; and the fourth consists of the first ten verses from Wycliffe's translation of the *Gospel of Mark,* Chapter IV.

THE PROLOG TO "THE VISION OF WILLIAM CONCERNING PIERS THE PLOWMAN"

1. In a somer seson whan soft was the sonne,
   In a summer season when soft was the sun,
2. I shope me in shroudes as I a shepe were
   I robed me in garments as I a shepherd were
3. In habite as an heremite unholy of workes,
   In habit as a hermit unholy of works,
4. Went wyde in þis world wondres to here.
   Went wide in this world wonders to hear.

5. Ac on a May mornynge on Maluerne hulles,
   But on a May morning on Malvern hills,

6. Me byfel a ferly of fairy, me thouȝte;
   A marvel befell me from fairy me thought;

7. I was wery forwandred and went me to rest
   I was worn out with wandering and went me to rest

8. Vnder a brode banke bi a bornes side,
   Under a broad bank by a burn side,

9. And as I lay and lened and looked in þe wateres
   And as I lay and leaned and looked in the waters

10. I slombered in a slepyng it sweyved so merye.
    I slumbered in a sleeping it sounded so merry.

Wycliffe's Translation of the New Testament
(Written about 1380)
(*Chapter IV, verses 1–10*)

And eft Jhesus began for to teche at the see ; and myche company of peple is gedrid to hym, so that he, styinge [stepping] in-to a boot, sat in the see, and al the cumpany of peple was aboute the see, on the lond. And he tauȝte hem in parablis many thingis. And he seide to him in his techynge, "Heere ee. Loo ! a man sowynge goth out for to sowe. And the while he sowith, an other seed felde aboute the wey, and briddis of heuene, or *of the eire*, camen, and eeten it. Forsothe an other felde doun on stony placis, wher had nat myche erthe ; and anoon it sprong vp, for it had not depnesse of erthe. And whenne the sunne rose up, it welwide for heete, and it dried vp, for it had not roote. And an other felde doun into thornes, and thornes stieden vp, and strangliden it, and it ȝaue [gave] not fruyt. And an other felde doun in-to good lond, and ȝaue fruyt, styinge [standing] vp, and wexinge [waxing — growing] ; and oon broȝte thritty-fold, and oon sixty-fold, and oon hundrid-fold." And he seide, "He that hath eris of heeryng, heere."

The following selection, consisting of the first eighteen lines of Chaucer's *Prologue to the Canterbury Tales*, shows

the form into which English had developed at the close of the fourteenth century.

Whan that Aprille with his shoures sote
The droghte of Marche hath perced to the rote,
And bathed every veyne in swich licour,
Of which vertu engendred is the flour ;
Whan Zephirus eek with his swete breeth
Inspired hath in every holte and heeth
The tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne
Hath in the Ram his halfe cours i-ronne,
And smale fowles maken melodye,
That slepen al the night with open yë,
(So priketh hem nature in hir corages) :
Than longen folk to goon on pilgrimages,
(And palmers for to seeken straunge strondes)
To ferne halwes, couthe in sondry londes ;
And specially from every shires ende
Of Engelond, to Caunterbury they wende,
The holy blisful martir for to seke,
That hem hath holpen, whan that they were seke.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

Four individual reports are suggested to accompany this chapter, one to cover the English history of the period, a second upon the literature, and two others upon the language, as suggested by the list of readings that follows.

1. The materials for the first report may be secured by reading one of the histories and the reference to *Social England.*

FREEMAN, E. A. — *William the Conqueror.*

GARDINER, S. R. — *Student's History of England,* pp. 89–288.

GREEN, J. R. — *Short History of the English People,* Chapters II and III.

TRAILL, H. D., and MANN, J. S. — *Social England,* Vol. I, pp. 231–491, and Vol. II, pp. 1–276.

2. The materials for the second report may be found by reading one or more of the histories of English literature written for school or college use.

HALLECK, R. P. — *History of English Literature*, Chapter II.

MOODY, W. V., and LOVETT, R. M. — *A History of English Literature*, Chapters II and III.

NEILSON, W. A., and THORNDIKE, A. H. — *A History of English Literature*, Chapters II and III.

Any other good histories of English literature may be used.

3. The materials for the two reports upon the language may be obtained from one or more of the following:

EMERSON, O. F. — *History of the English Language*, Chapters IV and V.

LOUNSBURY, T. R. — *History of the English Language*, pp. 48–160.

TOLLER, T. N. — *Outlines of the History of the English Language*, Chapter XI.

WYLD, H. C. — *Historical Study of the Mother Tongue*, Chapter XIII.

CHAPTER V

The Sources from Which English Words Have Come

Increase in the English vocabulary. — Old English had a total of about 30,000 words. The complete dictionaries of our time contain about fourteen times as many. The enormous increase in the English vocabulary is accounted for in two ways. First, words are "made up" to meet new needs for names of things and conditions, and for adjectives, adverbs, and verbs. How they are made will be left for a later chapter. Second, words are taken over from other languages and assimilated by the borrowing language. It is customary to call these "loan words," following the lead of the German philologists who call them *Lehnwörter*. Strictly speaking, they are neither lent nor borrowed. Lending and borrowing imply asking. Here we shall refer to them as borrowed words, because the term is already well established and can be justified on the ground that, where informal neighborliness exists, one often borrows without asking the consent of the owner. The purpose of this chapter is to show from what sources and to what extent English has borrowed words.

We have already seen that the foundation of English is a Teutonic language belonging to the Indo-European family; that this language was brought to Britain by invading Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, and probably Frisians from the lowlands of Germany along the North

Sea; that it absorbed at that time a few Celtic words from the language of the Britons and a few Latin words from the speech of the Romans who ruled Britain before the coming of the Anglo-Saxons; that it borrowed many more words from the invading Danes of the ninth and tenth centuries; and that finally it was enormously augmented and modified by its contact with French during the three hundred years from 1100 to 1400. To make the story concrete, some examples of these borrowings are given in the remaining pages of this chapter.

The original Teutonic stock of words. — Despite all the borrowing which has so greatly enlarged the vocabulary of the English language, the major part of the words that appear in the speech and writing of the users of English are Anglo-Saxon. This does not mean that a count of all the words in the dictionary would show a majority to be derived from Anglo-Saxon, but rather that the common words in most frequent use are the *native* words. Professor Marsh in his *Lectures on the English Language* has called attention to the fact that Shakespeare used 90 per cent native words; the Authorized Version of the Bible (1611) shows 90 per cent; Milton, the accomplished classical scholar, used 81 per cent; Swift, 75 per cent; Johnson, 72 per cent; Macaulay, 75 per cent; and Tennyson, 88 per cent.

> The native element is the foundation and framework of English in use. It may be pointed out, also, that the native element bears a definite relation to simplicity and force of expression. This will be seen by a comparison of the large monosyllabic element included in the native words. . . . The loss of inflections which has reduced our language from a synthetic speech to an analytic speech, has also

largely increased the monosyllabic element in the vocabulary. This being so, it may be said in general that the larger the proportion of native words in a given author, the larger the proportion of short, simple, strong words, and the more concise, clear, and forcible the style. It is not meant by this that there are no monosyllables in the borrowed element, or that clearness and force depend exclusively on native words, but only that a larger proportion of the native element is monosyllabic.[1]

To illustrate the tendency to use native, forceful, simple monosyllables, the following passage from Tennyson's *Holy Grail* is quoted:

> And all at once, as there we sat, we heard
> A cracking and a riving of the roofs,
> And rending, and a blast, and overhead
> Thunder, and in the thunder was a cry.
> And in the blast there smote along the hall
> A beam of light seven times more clear than day:
> And down the long beam stole the Holy Grail
> All over cover'd with a luminous cloud,
> And none might see who bare it, and it past.
> But every knight beheld his fellow's face
> As in a glory, and all the knights arose,
> And staring each at other like dumb men
> Stood, till I found a voice and sware a vow.

The passage contains a hundred and twelve words, two of which are of three syllables, thirteen of two syllables, and ninety-seven of only one. Notice also the whole lines made up of one-syllabled words.

> And all at once, as there we sat, we heard . . .
> A beam of light seven times more clear than day . . .
> And none might see who bare it, and it past. . . .
> Stood, till I found a voice and sware a vow.

Seven is here pronounced as a single syllable.

[1] Emerson, O. F. — *History of the English Language*, p. 133.

Native words in the vocabulary of modern English. — The following twenty-five words will be sufficient to illustrate the kinds of words which make up the native element in the English vocabulary: *many, head, fold, lord, lady, year, daisy, bridal, brimstone, darling, starboard, gospel, woman, orchard, yes, world, deer, dear, abide, whole, road, day, loaf, over, read.*

Celtic words in the English vocabulary. — It has already been shown that the conquering Angles and Saxons did not adopt many words from either the Celts or the Romans at the time of the Conquest. We have in English a very small number of words adopted from the Celtic before 1100; but the total is less than twenty, and there is doubt about some of these. Scholars are agreed upon *brock* (a badger), *down,* (a hill), and *slough.* Other Celtic words adopted at later times from the speech of the Irish are *brogue, galore,* and *shamrock;* from the Scotch, *clan, glen, kail, plaid, slogan,* and *whiskey;* from the Welsh, *coracle* and perhaps *flannel.*

Latin words in English. — Only the words *street* and *chester* (Winchester, Doncaster, etc.) with the possibility of *lake, port, mile, wall,* and *wine* seem to have been adopted by the Anglo-Saxons from Latin at the time of the Anglo-Saxon settlement. *Wine* may have been in their language, learned directly by contact with Rome, before the Teutons came to England. The very extensive borrowing from Latin came at later periods. Words having to do with the church and the Christian religion were adopted with the conversion to Christianity in the sixth century and through the teachings of missionaries and monks. The total number of words borrowed from

Latin was as many as 400 before the Norman Conquest.[1] They were such words as *altar, apostle, bishop, creed, candle, church, deacon, minister, temple, meter, tile, butter, cheese, kitchen, mill, cup, offer, shrive, stop, spend, crisp,* and *short.* Latin words in great numbers came in indirectly through the French after the Conquest, through the new interest in Latin literature following the Revival of Learning, and finally in modern times through the creation of scientific and technical terms based upon Latin words.

The Scandinavian element in English. — Attention has already been called to the fact that English borrowed a bit of its grammar in the plural pronoun forms for the third person, *they, their, them,* from the Scandinavian invaders of the ninth and tenth centuries. In addition to this borrowing, quite a long list of our most useful, simple, common words came from this source. *Call, crave, fellow, haven, husband, knife, law, scald, give, get, guest, drag, egg, flag, hug, keg, kid, kirtle, leg, bait, hail, raise, raid,* and *wail* came from this source.

The French element in English. — The largest borrowing in the English language is probably from the French, with Latin second. The student must not forget that in its grammar English is a Teutonic language. In its vocabulary it is a double language, Teutonic and Latin. The extensive, direct Latin borrowing has already been sketched. In addition, very extensive, though indirect, Latin loans to English came through the Norman-French in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, the Parisian French of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, and from modern French since 1600.

[1] Krapp, G. P. — *Modern English,* p. 216.

We call French a *Romance* language, a language derived from that of the Romans. France was inhabited in early historic times by a Celtic race related to the early Britons and speaking a language similar to that of the Britons. The standard Latin was that spoken and written by educated men in Rome, such as Cæsar and Cicero. This highly inflected literary language was not spoken in its purity by the common people. When the Romans occupied Gaul they dispossessed the Franks, who had already taken the country from the original Celts. The Latin language in time prevailed, but the Franks learned their Latin from soldiers, townspeople, farmers, merchants, and not from literary men like Cicero. Then came the Northmen, a Teutonic tribe, who learned the French that had grown out of the mixture of the languages of Celtic, Frankish, and Latin peoples, the latter living a long way from the source of standard Latin. The French that the Normans brought to England was already very unlike Latin and also quite different in pronunciation from the French of Paris.

The Romance element in English, therefore, came first from the French spoken by the Normans. Many words were taken into the English language from that source. Some of them are *ache, air, age, arm, art, aunt, bell, balm, beast, beauty, beef, blame, boil, branch, breeze, brief, brush, cage, calm, chant, chase, chief, choice, choir, cloak, cry, change, castle, countess, court, empress, justice, miracle, peace, prison, privilege, procession, rage, rent, standard, tower, treason, treasure, vine,* and *war.*

With the new interest in learning in the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries, the Parisian French

began to exert an influence upon English. The University of Paris was the most influential center of learning in the West for a long time. Scholars from England went to Paris and returned to Oxford with their acquisitions. Of course, the lectures in the Universities were in Latin, but gradually words of Parisian French began to be used in England; and finally in the fifteenth century, through the reading and translation of French books, more words of this kind came to be used. It is not easy now to separate the English words derived from Norman French and those derived at the same time from Parisian, for they have all gone through the same processes of changes in being made over into English.

When Charles II returned to England from France in 1660, he and his court revived an interest in French manners, speech, and books. The modern borrowings from French begin with the Restoration. While there was at this time a decided increase in the adoption of French words, which soon was retarded to a normal rate, the borrowings from the French have never ceased entirely. Some of the words that have come in since 1660 are *adroit*, *aggressor*, *antechamber*, *brunette*, *burlesque*, *cadet*, *cajole*, *calash*, *campaign*, *cannonade*, *caprice*, *caress*, *chagrin*, *commandant*, *complaisant*, *console*, *coquette*, *corps*, and *cravat*.[1] The student who wishes to pursue the quest further (the citations above go no further than through *a*, *b*, and *c* of the alphabet) will find it easy to do so. The *New English Dictionary* gives the date of the earliest use in English, along with the sounds, definition, etc., of the words it treats.

[1] Emerson, O. F. — *History of the English Language*, p. 167.

English a good borrower. — So much has been said about the borrowings of English that the student is in a fair way to get the impression that his native language is a sponge, always getting and never giving; that English is forever accepting gifts and never giving any in return, dining out continually and never asking others to dine. This impression is in part true. German absorbs foreign words very sparingly, English very readily; but English has lent very freely to French and to a lesser extent to other languages. On the whole, however, it is probably true that English has taken more than it has given. One other thing needs to be said about linguistic borrowing. The lender does not lose anything. When one takes a cold from a friend, the friend has just as much cold left as before he gave it to his friend. When English takes words from French, that language still has the word that it lent to English. English gains something, while French loses nothing.

Other Romance borrowings. — Three other Romance languages have contributed to the vocabulary of English, though none of them so freely as has the French. These languages are Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese. Some of the words in these languages have been borrowed directly and some at second hand through French. The Italian stories of Boccaccio were first made known to English readers through French translations. From the Italian at one time or another we have borrowed *pilgrim*, *alarm*, *brigand*, *ducat*, *florin*, *archipelago*, *balcony*, *cameo*, *campanile*, *catacomb*, *dilettante*, and *extravagance*. From the Spanish we have *alcalde*, *castanet*, *hidalgo*, *matador*, *indigo* (related to the word *India*), *sassafras*,

sherry, vanilla, armada, flotilla, alligator, armadillo, mosquito, punctilio, cigar, peccadillo, cascara, brocade, tornado, sierra, and the Spanish-American words *adobe, sombrero, canyon, lariat, bonanza, fandango, corral, calaboose, lasso, ranch, broncho, bunco,* and *cinch.*[1]

From the Portuguese we have acquired a few words.[2] *Banana, binnacle, cobra, cocoa, caste, palaver, madeira, molasses, pimento, tank,* and *fetish* are from this source.

Words from Dutch, Flemish, and Frisian. — From the sources that we may call "Low German" we have the words *boy* and *girl* and a number of words related to shipping and commerce; such as, *ahoy, aloof, boom, deck, hoist, lash, lighter, marline, moor, reef, skipper, sloop, smack* (a boat), *swab, yacht, yawl, groat, guilder, hogshead, holland, jerkin, spool,* and *wagon.* High German has given us very few words. One recalls *kindergarten,* and the scientific terms *bismuth, blende, cobalt, gneiss, quartz, shale,* and *zinc.* It would seem that High German has literally followed the precept of Polonius: "Neither a borrower nor a lender be."

Words from various sources. — We have taken very few words directly from Greek sources. These few are borrowed from classic Greek and have in most cases come by way of Latin. Several of our words referring to matters of the Church have come to us from Greek, first into Latin and then into English. This is true of *bishop, church, deacon,* and *devil.*

The words *pepper, ginger, sugar, sulphur, nard, chintz, jungle,* and *juggernaut* come from India.

[1] Mencken, H. L. — *The American Language,* p. 86.
[2] McKnight, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background,* p. 143.

Persia contributes *azure, candy, check, chess, orange, peach, bazaar, borax, caravan,* and *divan.*

Russia gives us *czar, droshky, knout, mazurka, polka,* and *ukase.*

Vampire is a Hungarian word.

From the Arabic we get *admiral, alkali, alkoran, azimuth, elixir, lemon, alcohol, algebra, amber, artichoke, Bedouin, benzoin, calif, coffee, cotton, sirup, sherbet, cipher,* and many others.

The Hebrew language is the source for *alleluia, amen, cummin, balsam, cherub, ephod, Gehenna, Messiah,* and *paschal.*

Abba, damask, damson, and *mammon* are from the Aramaic.

The student must bear in mind that these lists of words make no pretense of being complete. The intention is merely to offer a few words under each head to give the student an impression of the variety of sources from which our words have come and to indicate the kinds of words which have come from each. A few additional words from many other sources will suffice to show how cosmopolitan the language has become. From China we get *tea, serge, pongee,* and *mandarin;* from Japan, *rickshaw, samurai, kimono,* and *satsuma;* from the South Sea Islands, *bamboo, cheroot, teak, gong, junk, amuck, sago, gingham, bantam, taboo, tattoo, atoll,* and *ukulele;* from the wilds of Africa, *canary, chimpanzee, voodoo, tango, gorilla, guinea,* and *zebra;* from Australia, *boomerang* and *kangaroo;* from Central and South America, *mahogany, cassava, guava, chili, guano, llama, pampas,* and *coyote,* most of these coming to English through Span-

ish; and finally, from the North American Indians, a long list of words used in America, of which these and some others have come into general English use: *hickory, hominy, moccasin, moose, calumet, squaw, tomahawk, wigwam.*[1]

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

1. The Native Element in English.
   - Emerson, O. F. — *History of the English Language*, Chapter VIII.
   - McKnight, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, Chapter VI.
2. The Classic Element in English.
   - Greenough, J. B., and Kittredge, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, Chapter VIII.
   - McKnight, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, Chapter VIII. (Additional readings by McKnight cited at the end of Chapter VIII.)
3. The French Contribution to English.
   - Emerson, O. F. — *History of the English Language*, Chapter X.
   - Krapp, G. P. — *Modern English*, pp. 219–255.
   - McKnight, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, Chapter VIII.
4. Teutonic Borrowings in English.
   - Emerson, O. F. — *History of the English Language*, pp. 153–157.
   - Jespersen, Otto — *Growth and Structure of the English Language.*
   - McKnight, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, Chapter VII.
   - Smith, L. P. — *The English Language*, pp. 191–193.

[1] McKnight, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, Chapter X.

5. Miscellaneous Contributions of Words to the English Language.
   BRADLEY, H. — *The Making of English*, Chapter III.
   EMERSON, O. F. — *History of the English Language*, pp. 170–179.
   GREENOUGH, J. B., and KITTREDGE, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, Chapters X and XI.
   MCKNIGHT, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, Chapter X.

EXERCISES FOR INDIVIDUAL INVESTIGATION AND REPORT

Look up in the *New English Dictionary*, or in the *International*, the *Standard*, or the *Century*, if the first is not available, the words in the lists given below and report what you learn about their origin, their first or early use in English literature, the evolution of the spelling, and of meanings. No student should be required to work through more than one list.

First List	*Second List*	*Third List*	*Fourth List*
1. ancient	bank (of earth)	sprightly	light
2. ensign	bank (for money)	sprite	delight
3. rhyme	venture	debt	doubt
4. rhythm	adventure	indict	choir
5. cord	apostle	saint	quire
6. chord	Christian	sanctuary	chorus
7. angel	guard	gage	acquire
8. discuss	ward	guarantee	wage
9. desk	real	leal	warrant
10. dish	regal	legal	corps
11. dais	royal	loyal	corpse
12. captive	conceit	priest	fragile
13. caitiff	conception	presbyter	stool
14. table	sheep	calf	chair
15. board	mutton	veal	cossack
16. ottoman	uhlan	bosh	klan

17.	hussar	saber	shako	tea
18.	amuck	gong	junk	frail
19.	boomerang	kangaroo	taboo	tattoo
20.	behemoth	oasis	gypsy	sack
21.	hominy	moose	moccasin	toboggan
22.	chocolate	coyote	tomato	potato
23.	alpaca	condor	guano	quinine
24.	tapioca	admiral	lemon	alkali
25.	alcohol	coffee	cotton	algebra

	Fifth List	*Sixth List*	*Seventh List*	*Eighth List*
1.	azure	candy	chess	orange
2.	caravan	divan	borax	bazaar
3.	pepper	jungle	ginger	sugar
4.	yacht	yawl	boy	girl
5.	spool	wagon	hoist	reef
6.	banana	ambuscade	cocoa	armada
7.	vanilla	flotilla	alligator	mosquito
8.	balcony	cameo	campanile	dilettante
9.	diaper	orange	brigand	pilgrim
10.	adroit	apartment	brunette	blond
11.	campaign	caprice	chagrin	coquette
12.	console	cravat	cadet	ballet
13.	blanch	castle	miracle	prison
14.	church	capital	catch	cattle
15.	cathedral	chapter	chase	chattel
16.	minister	kennel	bean	duty
17.	abbey	channel	beauty	debut
18.	chapel	bonny	vine	feast
19.	grandeur	chaperone	ravine	fete
20.	connoisseur	chandler	rouge	bouquet
21.	suit	chandelier	rage	quit
22.	suite	episcopal	alms	candle
23.	ghost	cheese	woman	ugly
24.	aghast	bread	drown	debutante
25.	butter	kitchen	harbor	napkin

This kind of exploration of the dictionary may be carried further and may be made a real adventure if the students are interested in the romance of words, or short stories from the dictionary, as this kind of study has been called. For example, let some of those students who have not been assigned specific lists to explore take some such assignment as this: Under the letter *F* choose every twenty-fifth common noun until you have a total of twenty-five. Report on these as directed for the eight lists already made up. Other students might take nouns beginning with M, R, S, etc. Other students might do the same thing with verbs.

CHAPTER VI

The Loss of Inflections

A loss that is a gain. — One of the notable characteristics of the Indo-European family of languages, of which English is a member, is inflection as a device to indicate the grammatical relationships of the words in sentences. When a single adjective form like *bright* may be applied as a modifier to a noun in any number, gender, or case, it appears at the first glance that English is not so exact as another language that requires agreement between the noun and the adjective in all these matters of grammar. English can say *the old man, the old men, the old women, the old trees* without any change whatever in any word except the noun. Greek, Latin, Old English, or modern High German would change the forms both of the definite article, if each had such a word, and of the descriptive adjective so as to express number three times, gender three times, and case three times.

Languages seem to begin with inarticulate sounds and cries and then to develop into highly complex systems, even before civilization comes to the tribes who speak them. Savage peoples invent specific words for specific things before they devise words to express their ideas of generalities. There will be a word for each kind of tree before there is a word *tree* which may be applied to

any kind. The tendency seems to be to invent slight differentiations before generalizations. This tendency accounts for the complexity of languages in their earlier stages. When a language that has developed its many spoken forms reaches its literary stage and comes to be written, the devices used to express shades of meaning in its words become apparent to the eye. Then some one arranges the various forms logically, records the results of his studies, and we have the grammar of that tongue.

Old English a language of many inflections. — Nine hundred years ago English was a highly inflected language relying upon its inflectional forms to express the relations existing between the nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and verbs in its sentences. Modern English is called an " analytic " language, one which expresses those relations by means of position of words in the sentence, by the use of prepositions and auxiliary verbs, and still to a limited extent by a few simple inflections. This transformation seems to have occurred in a very short time, as time is measured in the history of civilization. Nine hundred years is a brief span. How do we account for the rapidity of the transformation? What we have seen is only the final break-up of a system that was already going to pieces when we first saw English as an independent language. As soon as a primitive language reaches the high point in the development of its inflectional forms, it begins the process of simplification. Indeed, it is more than probable that the second process begins before the completion of the first. Some of its forms will be found useless, cumbersome, and confusing, hard to learn and to keep distinct, before the developing

process has reached its culmination. These will fall away through neglect and through inaccurate use. While Old English was an inflected language with about the same degree of complexity as modern High German, it was already well on the road toward simplicity. Sanskrit had eight cases for its nouns, pronouns, and adjectives — the nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive, locative, and vocative. Latin and Greek are the most highly inflected languages now commonly read. These had already begun the simplification of inflections. Latin had six cases, and Greek had five. Old English had four — the nominative, genitive, dative, and accusative. In modern English, except for the pronouns, there are no case forms aside from the *'s* and the final apostrophe in the possessive. Sanskrit and Greek had three numbers — singular, dual (used to indicate two only), and plural. Old English still retained the dual forms but these forms appear only in the personal pronouns:

NOM.	*wit* (*we two*)	NOM.	*git* (*you two*)
GEN.	*uncer*	GEN.	*incer*
DAT.	*unc*	DAT.	*inc*
ACC.	*unc*	ACC.	*inc*

Even these six forms were not often used. Primitive Indo-European had several declensions, and an elaborate verbal system of several classes, each class having active, middle, and passive voice; it had full subjunctive and optative moods, and also imperfect, future, and aorist tenses with dual number running through all. Greek kept most of that elaborate system. Latin had lost the aorist tense, the middle voice, and dual number. The

oldest literary form of the Teutonic language, Gothic,[1] still retained some of this outworn machinery. Old English carried the simplification still further than the Gothic. Then contact of the English with other languages, Norse and French, at the fortunate time when the process of casting off the old forms was well under way served to accelerate the movement. The fact that English was largely the spoken language of the common people for a period of three hundred years gave it an exceptional opportunity to simplify itself by dropping useless forms unhindered by the rigidity which literary standardization gives a language.

Changes in language not lawless and haphazard. — One who compares a page of the Old English Gospel of St. Mark with the same chapter as written by Wycliffe in Middle English, by the King James translators in 1611, and as presented in such modern editions as the Authorized Version, the American Revision, or Professor Goodspeed's translation, may come to the conclusion that the changes came about in ways wholly haphazard and incapable of explanation. The explanation is not simple, and the changes were not the result of the conscious planning of scholars, but they do follow a recognized order. Greenough and Kittredge make the following comment:

[1] Frequent comparisons are made with Gothic because it is the oldest form of a Teutonic language that was reduced to writing. Bishop Ulfilas, who lived from 311 to 381 A.D., made a partial translation of the Bible into the language of the West Goths. The other old Teutonic languages in their oldest literary remains belong to dates considerably later. Old English is preserved in writings dated about 700, Old High German, about 750, Old Saxon and Old Low Franconian, about 800, Old Icelandic, Old Norwegian, Old Danish, and Old Swedish, about 1100, and Old Frisian, about 1300.

The whole process seems to have gone on *pro re nata*, a new form being essayed only when a need was felt for it. It should be remembered that our grammatical paradigms are long subsequent to the forms of which they consist, and that the first makers of grammar did not know they had any grammar, any more than the makers of history are aware that they are making history. Still we must not suppose that our inflections came into being at haphazard or without system.[1]

Professor Emerson emphasizes the same point when he says:

The inflectional levelling incident to English in the course of its history is often represented as wholly haphazard and incapable of systematic treatment. But this proceeds from a mistaken view of language and a misconception of the alternations it may undergo. In reality few changes in language are of the haphazard sort, and we may therefore expect to find, in the inflectional levelling of English, certain changes common to all forms and capable of careful and systematic statement. These changes cannot be set down with chronological exactness, partly because there was no standard language in which alterations may be traced with ease, partly because changes were going on in some dialects more rapidly than in others. But we may still attempt to place in approximate order of time the inflectional changes which apply with regularity to more than one class of words.[2]

Inflections have gradually "stepped down." — Electrical engineers speak of "stepping down" or "stepping up" a current from a high voltage to a lower or from a low to a higher. This phrase aptly describes what happened to the Old English inflections. The transformation was not suddenly made from the highest to the lowest degree. Old English is referred to as the period of "full inflection" not only because the inflections were many, but

[1] *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, p. 181.
[2] *History of the English Language*, pp. 286–287.

also because they were " pronounced with a full and distinct sense of the values of the various vowels and inflectional endings." [1] *Stānas* (stän'äs) (nominative plural of *stone*) was pronounced as two syllables with the accent on the first. The genitive singular was *stānes*. The *es* syllable was pronounced so distinctly that it was not mistaken for *as*. The Middle English period is referred to as the time of " leveled inflections." There was no great body of standard literature in Old English generally known and read by the common people. English lived as a spoken language. Those unaccented endings were not so clearly enunciated as the accented syllables were. The middle and lower classes, who spoke the language exclusively, learned it " by ear," had not seen it much in script, and were not so sure of the forms as educated men and women would have been if they had constantly seen as well as heard the language. English was spoken in parts of the nation that were not in close contact with each other. Slight differences were likely to grow up in this way. The syllable *um* being unaccented and indistinct at the end of a word might have been heard as *un, on, en,* or *an*. Unaccented end vowels pronounced somewhat like *uh* were confused. When the language came once more into literary use it was found that these many endings had been leveled to *e, en,* and *es*.

In the case of nouns, this leveling process affected Middle English by throwing all of these into two declensions: strong nouns, those that formed their genitive singular and nominative and accusative plural by using the ending *es;* and weak nouns, those that used *en* for

[1] Krapp, G. P. — *Modern English*, p. 62.

these forms. *Stān* is a typical strong noun. In Middle English its vowel was changed to *o* (the *a* easily became *ō*), and its endings were as shown below. *Steorra* is a typical weak noun. Its transformation from Old English to Middle English is also shown.

Old English		*Middle English*	*Modern English*
		SINGULAR	
Nom.	stān	stone	stone
Gen.	stānes	stones	stone's
Dat.	stāne	ston (e)	stone
Acc.	stān	ston	stone
		PLURAL	
Nom.	stānas	stones	stones
Gen.	stāna	ston (en)e *or* stones	stones'
Dat.	stānum	stonen *or* stones	stones
Acc.	stānas	stones	stones
		SINGULAR	
Nom.	steorra	sterre	star
Gen.	steorran	sterre (sterren)	star's
Dat.	steorran	sterre (sterren)	star
Acc.	steorran	sterre (sterren)	star
		PLURAL	
Nom.	steorran	sterren (sterres)	stars
Gen.	steorrena	sterre (sterren)	stars'
Dat.	steorrum	sterren (sterres)	stars
Acc.	steorran	sterren (sterres)	stars

The simplification of the verbs was as remarkable as was that of the nouns. Greenough and Kittredge (*Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, pp. 182–183) show the forms of our word *have* in Gothic, Old English, Middle English, and modern English. In Gothic there

are fifteen distinct forms of the word. The shortest, *habaida*, has seven letters, and the longest, *habai-dedeima*, has twelve letters. Anglo-Saxon has four distinct forms of this word, Middle English three, and modern English one form of three letters, *had;* and this one form is capable of expressing every shade of meaning that could be expressed by the fifteen long Gothic forms.

Other levelings. — It is not planned in this chapter to go into all the details of the process of discarding inflections, but merely to give here some typical examples and to show the effects of these. In later chapters in which we take up the study of the parts of speech, somewhat closer attention will be given to the history of the inflections of each part of speech. Only four other examples will be shown here by way of general illustration. The first of these is the discarding of grammatical gender. English has been particularly fortunate in being able to free itself of this piece of useless lumber, with which several of the other modern languages, notably German, are yet encumbered to their decided disadvantage. In Old English, gender referred to the way a noun was spelled and not necessarily to the sex of the person or object named. If a noun ended in *a* it was masculine no matter whether the object was male, female, or sexless. *Star* and *moon* and *name* were all masculine. *Wife* and *child* were neuter. *Sun* was feminine. When the case endings of nouns were pretty generally reduced to *e, en, es,* or when the final unaccented *e* was dropped off, there was no longer a possibility of, or an excuse for, maintaining gender based upon inflectional endings. The result was that an elaborate

and artificial agreement of the adjective and noun with reference to gender dropped away; and English was free from the complication of an agreement of nouns and adjectives in the matter of three genders, two numbers, and four cases. Another simplification already referred to is the reduction of the forms of the definite article from thirteen forms in Old English to a simple *the* in modern English. Compare this with the elaborate inflection of *der*, *die*, and *das* in modern German. Very significant simplifications have occurred in the personal pronouns and verbs; but these are to be taken up in the chapters on pronouns and verbs, and so will not be used as illustrations here.

After the reduction of the inflectional endings to *e*, *es*, and *en*, a further process of " stepping down " was comparatively simple. As has already been shown, the characteristic ending of the weak declension of nouns and adjectives was the *en* ending. The nominative form for the Old English word for *star* was *steorra;* in Middle English this had become *sterre*, but all of the other case forms were *sterren*. First of all the *n* of this unaccented final syllable was dropped in the genitive, dative, and accusative singular forms. Then the plural forms underwent the same change. This left the ending *e* for all the forms; and since several of the case forms for strong nouns and adjectives had the same ending, the distinction between the strong and weak declensions disappeared. Not only did this inflectional *n* drop off, but the *n* that was an integral part of the word at the end of a few words was treated as if it were an inflection and in like manner dropped. This happened in the case of *ope* for

open, and *mistletoe* for Old English *misteltan.* This change also occurred in the words *mine, thine,* and *an* (one), leaving the modern forms *my, thy,* and *a* (which is now used before words beginning with a consonant). The older form *an* is used now before words beginning with vowel sounds, and in solemn style *mine* and *thine* are still so used.

The final *e,* unaccented and unsupported by a consonant following it, got so little stress in pronunciation that it was insignificant. Wherever it occurs in Middle English, as in the writings of Langland, Wycliffe, or Chaucer, it is lightly pronounced and makes an additional syllable, but by the end of the fourteenth century, in poetry as well as in prose, this extra syllable was elided before a word beginning with a vowel sound or an *h,* but usually retained before words beginning with consonant sounds. By the beginning of the period of modern English even this use of the sounded final *e* had disappeared.

This leaves only the neglect of the *e* sound in certain words ending in *es* (plurals and genitive singulars of nouns) and *ed* and *en* of past tense and past participle forms to be accounted for. In some cases the spelling is retained, as in *punished, furnished, finished,* but is not pronounced. This leaves these words with but two syllables, instead of three, as they would be if the *ed* endings were pronounced. In the *en* words such as *boren* and *sworen* the *e* was dropped out and a word of one syllable left in each case, *born* or *borne,* and *sworn.*

Is the process of simplification finished? — It is natural to suppose that the process of simplification is

no longer active. We see no changes in grammar taking place in our own time. Perhaps all the possible simplifications have been made and we now have a language as nearly perfect as it is possible to make it. Past experience with the language does not encourage that conclusion. It is true that one is not aware of grammatical change taking place in any given decade; and yet within comparatively recent years the use of the subjunctive mode has almost disappeared. One need not go far back in literature to find such expressions as *if he read well, if she recite, if it be*, instead of the current form for the present tense in conditional clauses where the subject is in the third person singular — *if he reads, if she recites, if it is.* Indeed many very exact persons still insist upon using these subjunctives, but most English speakers and writers are content with the single subjunctive *were* in *if he were, if she were, if it were.* There is little to stop this remnant of the subjunctive, also, from following the other subjunctive forms to the scrap heap. Most English verbs now form the past tense and past participle by making use of the *ed* ending. Other strong verbs may in time come to take that form. The language needs a pronoun of common gender to overcome the necessity of awkwardly using the two forms *he* or *she, him* or *her*, or *his* or *hers* in such expressions as "Each should express *his* or *her* own opinion freely," or illogically, "Each should express *his* own opinion," or ungrammatically, "Each should express *their* opinion."

Dictionaries, a body of literature, common schools, compulsory education, and general literacy tend to standardize and fix a language. These agencies cer-

tainly retard change, but they do not entirely arrest it. Where the change consists in discarding useless forms, there is a probability of its going on slowly even in modern times; but such a change as the invention and introduction of a new piece of grammatical machinery, like the common gender pronoun suggested above, is not at all probable.

There is a real need for a contraction of *am I not.* We say *isn't she, aren't you,* and *isn't it,* but we have no brief form of *am I not* except *ain't I.* This form meets with very widespread objection. But in the past the most persistent opposition of the purists has failed to arrest change in any direction toward which the language seemed to have a " set." Perhaps we or our successors may yet see *aint* as an accepted contraction and *like* as a subordinate conjunction in the pages of some Pater or Henry James of the future.

Conclusion. — Loss of inflections and other kinds of simplification of language are not, as was once supposed, indices of degeneration and disintegration. The older classical scholars, comparing the highly perfected systems of inflection as exemplified in the Greek verb with approximately five hundred forms for λύο (*loose* or *set free*) with the four forms in English, *loose, looses, loosed,* and *loosing,* which were used to express a far wider range of ideas than was ever expressed by the Greeks with all their forms, were inclined to look with contempt upon English as a decaying language, the language of an indolent race too lazy to memorize the forms of their earlier language and to pass these on in their purity and exactness to the succeeding generations. Something of this

same attitude was taken by the earlier scientific philologists. These men were German and accustomed to use a language in about the same stage of complexity of inflection as was Old English a thousand years ago. To them also English was a degenerate tongue. More recent scholars, especially since the publication of *Progress in Language*, by the Danish scholar, Professor Jespersen, have assumed a different attitude. Language is not valued for its intricacy, but for its efficiency as an agent for the communication of thought from one to another. To quote Greenough and Kittredge once more:

> The development of our family of languages proceeds from simple elements of vague meanings to an elaborate system of inflections, nicely differentiated to express a great variety of ideas and relations. No sooner is this great system built up, however, than it begins to go to pieces, until in our own speech, there are scarcely any inflections remaining. This decay, as we have seen, may coincide with an enormous advance in civilization. Our ancient relatives, the Goths of the fourth century, were as much our inferiors in complexity of civilization as our language is inferior to theirs in complexity of inflectional forms. The decay is merely formal; it has in no way impaired the expressive power of our language. The Goths used fifteen forms of *have* in the preterite, some of them extending to twelve letters; we have but a single form *had*, three letters in length, to perform the function of the whole fifteen. Yet this one short form proves to be entirely competent for the task imposed upon it. There has been no loss, but an incalculable gain — the gain involved in accomplishing a given result with an enormous economy of effort. The apparent demolition is only the destruction of a scaffolding that is useless after the building is finished.[1]

With simple words arranged in sentences so as to avoid ambiguity, English is able to express every kind of

[1] *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, p. 183.

thought and every shade of meaning. Those who speak a language more highly inflected are obliged to give a larger share of their attention to *how* they are saying the thing and a lesser to *what* they are saying than do those who use a simpler language like English. In proportion as a language frees one from attention to *mechanics* and permits concentration upon *thinking* it is a good language, an efficient instrument for the communication of ideas. English is not faultless, but to a high degree it does enable those who use it to direct their attention to thought and to effectiveness, even to beauty in expression, rather than to exactness in the selection of the acceptable grammatical forms.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS

No individual reports are suggested to accompany the study of this chapter. Reports on the materials of the chapter will be asked for when a more detailed study of them is made later in a discussion of the parts of speech in English grammar. Any one who wishes to read a fuller treatment of the subject of "Inflections" is referred to the following books :

EMERSON, O. F. — *The History of the English Language*, Chapter XVII.

JESPERSEN, OTTO — *Growth and Structure of the English Language*, Chapter IV.

KRAPP, G. P. — *Modern English: Its Growth and Present Use*, Chapter IV.

CHAPTER VII

The Formation of Words in English

The origin of language. — Language of some kind is used by human beings everywhere. The most highly civilized nations have their means of communication through speech and writing perfected to a high degree. On the other hand there is no tribe so low in the cultural scale as to be without language. There are in the sounds made by animals differences that distinguish pleasure from pain, satisfaction from dissatisfaction, that indicate fear, hunger, and the like; but these sounds are not arranged in any system even faintly resembling the language of the most primitive men. Man has been described as "the animal that laughs." Speech is a still more striking characteristic than laughter, distinguishing the lowest order of men from the highest, most intelligent species of sub-human animals. But of the origin of speech, how man came by it in the beginning, we are yet to learn. Of course, nobody knows; nor is it likely that anybody ever will know positively. A number of explanations have been offered, each of which is more or less satisfactory.

The first of these is that man was created a speaking being, that there was but one language in the beginning, and that the many languages originated in a confusion and breaking up of that original tongue. A second is

that man developed speech by imitating sounds in nature made by animals, insects, winds, trees, and the like, and by applying these sounds as names of the things that made them. A third is that man experienced certain contacts with external phenomena and made certain sounds in response to those experiences, which sounds, reflexively repeated every time the experience occurred, became the names of the external things that called forth this emotional reaction. Still another is that speech began with exclamations, and expanded from that beginning. Perhaps all of these theories except the first are partial explanations. It is not at all likely that man was brought into being by a single sudden creative act and equipped with language by that act just as he might have been equipped with digestive organs. The race in its childhood probably had to acquire a means of communication in much the same way that a baby does now, except that the race had no mother to teach it. The race had to make its own speech. Language is not a physical inheritance. It is probably the most valuable single element in the *social* heritage. One speaks English or French not because he inherits organs that are capable of being trained to make and control the sounds of English or French but because in his childhood he is cared for by parents or others who use English or French as their language. A child born of English-speaking parents but brought up from infancy to maturity by a family of Chinese or Arabs in a Chinese or Arab community would not speak the language of its parents but of its foster parents. A boy of Spanish parentage and a girl of Russian left at birth on an uninhabited

island, if they should by any chance live to grow to maturity, would not inherit either the Spanish or the Russian language from their parents. They would have no language. And if they should become the first parents of a tribe living on that island for many generations, it is impossible to say how many years or hundreds or thousands of years it would be before the tribe would develop a language anything like Spanish or Russian in its complexity and with the capability of expressing ideas that those languages have.

No phenomenon is more amazing than speech. Nor can any process be imagined more complicated than that by which the vocabulary of a highly developed language, like English, comes into existence and fits itself to the multifarious needs of civilized man in the utterance of thought and emotion. If to the process of oral speech we add the corollary process of reading and writing, we have a series of phenomena which no thinking man can contemplate without a kind of awe.[1]

So wonderful is speech that it is not surprising that our ancestors in their imaginings could not think of it as man-made, that they ascribed it to the miraculous creation of divinity. There is something instinctive, inborn, about speech in spite of what we have said about language as a part of the social heritage of human beings and the impossibility of a child's inheriting his language from his parents. Thorndike, speaking of the inherited tendencies to minor bodily movements and cerebral connections, says:

A little child, apart from training, makes all sorts of movements of the vocal cords and mouth parts, resulting in cooings, babblings,

[1] Greenough, J. B., and Kittredge, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, p. 8.

yellings, squealings, and squawkings of great variety. . . . Vocal play seems to occur with no ulterior consequence. Any stimulus from without or within, which does not connect with some antagonistic vocal activity, seems to evoke it. One sound or another, one sequence of sounds or another, seems to occur indiscriminately. . . . The end of voice-play is language.[1]

To make vocal responses to external stimuli is instinctive. That is the way a child begins to speak. The child is guided, encouraged to try over and over, until out of the hundreds of cooings, gurglings, babblings, etc., he is able to isolate one that vaguely resembles a word his mother is trying to teach him. This brings the satisfaction of approval and the encouragement to try it over and over. Other sounds bring the annoyance of disapproval; so are not repeated. Out of repeated trial and error, trial and success, with at last a word, and then another and another, the vocal organs finally are trained to form a great variety of sounds at will.

There is good reason to believe that primitive human beings built up language in much the same way as has been described for children. As a part of their physical inheritance they had organs that would produce a wide variety of sounds. They had an inherited tendency to exercise those organs, making similar responses to similar situations. Thus they imitated the dog, the bee, the cow, the wind; then they voiced an emotional response to the storm, the sunrise, the moon, to the waterfall, to their food and drink; then they cried out in joy or fear, in surprise or pain. And when two persons used the same sound to name or respond to the same thing and

[1] Thorndike, E. L. — *Educational Psychology*, Vol. I, pp. 134–136.

each knew what the other meant when he used that sound, the miracle of the beginning of language was achieved. After that first word the rest was only a repetition of the process. It was adding names, making words to mean action, words to describe, until gradually a language had been worked out. If the pair who used and understood that first word did nothing more about it than to teach it to one other person, child or adult, they added that bit of knowledge to the social heritage to be passed on from generation to generation. The second generation might have made four words, the third eight, the fourth sixteen. After the process was once started the making of a language with a vocabulary of two or three thousand words was only a matter of a few hundreds or a few thousands of years; and in the long story of the evolution of man, from the first being definitely human to the first man who preserved his thoughts in writing, a thousand years is but the span of a day.

Written language. — The beginning of written language was less of a miracle than that of spoken. While it took a long time, the period of growth for speech was probably infinitely longer than that for writing. The steps by which writing progressed are also more clearly defined than are those for oral expression. They may have been, first, communication by means of gesture, the head-shake for *no*, the nod for assent, the uplifted hand for *stop*, the beckoning hand for *come*. After the simple gesture came the more complex sign language, such as two fingers spread apart in a V, followed by a slow galloping motion made with the hand, to mean

jack rabbit; the finger on the lips to indicate silence; blowing on the index finger to signify *fire* or a *torch.* Perhaps the next stage was picture writing — first, the drawing of some of the signs used in sign language; then the inventing of other pictures to mean definite things. Finally by a process of modifying the forms used in picture writing, by giving them simple, conventional forms, sound-signs would be evolved and then an alphabet. After the alphabet the possibilities of communication are limited only by the capacity of the people to think and to invent a vocabulary to express their thoughts.

One should not get the idea that any one step in developing either oral or written language was completely taken before another began, or that when a new step was reached all the earlier processes were immediately discontinued. In these processes, as in other phases of growth, there are no sharp dividing lines to mark where one stage leaves off and another begins. One shades off into another. If gestures accompanied by inarticulate sounds were the first means of communication, there is no reason to suppose that gestures were no longer made after words were evolved. Certainly picture writing, sign language, pantomime, and articulate speech were all practiced at one time by one tribe. Even the most highly civilized people of our own time practice the use of gestures and signs and pantomime together with oral language.

The formation of words in English. — Our guesses about the beginnings of language may be right or wrong. We have no way of assuring ourselves of their accuracy. But with greater assurance we can assert that we do not

have in the language of to-day any of those first words invented by primitive men in their efforts to communicate with each other; and we may be sure also that the process of creating words is still active. There is no such thing as a language being made all at once, finished, with nothing altered or added afterward. A complete exposition of the ways in which words are created and changed would fill a large book. All one can do in a few pages is to name and describe briefly the more common, fairly well-understood ways and illustrate each with a few examples.

Roots and stems of words. — A scholar who makes comparative studies of languages finds a few simple syllables recurring in languages of the same family. Such syllables as *duc* (*lead*), *ag* (*drive*), *ed* (*eat*), *pa* (*feed*), *cad* (*fall*), and *reg* (*rule*) will illustrate what is meant by a "root." "A root is the simplest form that can be recognized as having once had an independent meaning in the development of words." [1]

Roots are not words, nor does the next step in the combination of sounds produce independent words. *Stems* are made by combining two roots in such a way as to specialize the application of the more definite of the two roots. Examples of this are seen in *agro*, *agri*, *cola*, *armo*, *gero*, and the like. "A stem is a complex of sounds expressing an idea, and ready for composition and inflection but not yet subjected to either." [2]

Some of the oldest words in the language are incapable

[1] Greenough, J. B., and Kittredge, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, p. 170.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 173.

of being analyzed back through stem to root. They do not group themselves with other words having similar meanings and some likenesses in construction. These are such words as *house* or *stone*. In such words we seem to have survivals of original root words that have not gone through the process of combining with other words into compounds or of taking on prefixes or suffixes and thus acquiring meanings different from those which they originally had.

Imitative words. — Only a few of the devices for creating words still function. Modern peoples do not create new roots and stems, nor do they make new words by mutation of the vowels as in *sing*, *sang*, *sung*, and *song*. Many new words are constantly being created, however, by means of the few pieces of machinery still in active operation. Two or three of these agencies make entirely new words. The others only combine and transform old words and give these new creations shades of meaning. Entirely new words are created by the old device of imitating the sounds made by certain objects. *Murmur*, *zum-zum*, and *hum* imitate the sound made by bees. *Quack*, *bow-wow*, *sizzle*, *whiz*, *simmer*, *bang*, *boom*, *giggle*, *hiss*, *tick-tack*, *hee-haw*, *cuckoo*, and *whip-poor-will* each suggests by its sound the thing to which it applies. These are called onomatopoetic words. A briefer name for them is that used by Sir James Murray, " echoic." *Choo-choo*, *papa*, *mama*, and *baby* are the same kind of words originating in baby talk. Soldier slang such as *crump*, *dud*, and *whizzbang* to describe certain kinds of shells will serve to show that this kind of word formation is still going on.

Another means similar to this is that which loosely brings together sound and sense. There is here no direct effort to imitate but rather an attempt to suggest by quickness or slowness in movement in saying the word the quickness or slowness of the object or action named, or to reflect in the word the emotional reaction, the feeling one has for the thing. Such words as *blab*, *smash*, *mush*, *blast*, and *flit* will perhaps suggest other words the speaking of which gives one a *feeling* about the action or object to which the word applies.

Gradation. — There are groups of words in English which have the suggestion of a common meaning back of them but which are differentiated in form by the use of different vowels combined with a single group of consonants. *Sing*, *sang*, *sung*, and *song* are all made upon the consonant foundation of *sng; ride*, *rode*, *ridden*, *rid*, *road*, and *raid* is another such group. *Bear*, *bore*, *borne*, *born*, *bairn*, and *bier* is another. In each case the consonant foundation, *sng*, *rd*, *br*, or *brn*, remains unchanged. The vowels, however, are either different or in different order throughout the gradation group. There are enough such groups to make clear that this has been one of the regular and important means of creating new words; but it is a device no longer used.

Composition. — One of the commonest means of making new words is by combining words already well known. This may result in a compound word made up of two nouns joined by a hyphen, or it may make a single word of two nouns, an adjective and a noun, a verb and an adverb, or a combination of other parts of speech, each word retaining its own form unchanged. The

process of compounding may, however, bring about changes in one or both words of the combination so as to obscure the words from which it was made. Attention has already been called to *lord* as made of two Old English words, *hlaf* (*loaf*) plus *weard* (*ward* or *guard*). *Orchard* is Old English *ort* (L. *hortus* — *garden*) plus Old English *geard*. *Dipsey* is from *deep* plus *sea; nostril*, from *nos* plus *þyrel* (*nose hole*); *hussy*, from *hus* plus *wif* (*house wife*); *barn*, from *ber* plus *ærn* (*barley building*); *steward*, from *stig* plus *weard* (*sty warder*); *daisy*, from *dages* plus *eage* (*day's eye*). *Lady* is a word that belies its origin. It is from *hlaf* plus *dige* (*loaf kneader*). The twentieth-century lady endangers her right to the name if she kneads the loaf. But a reversion to the old meaning of the word might be a gain for the family, the loaf, and the lady.

Modern compounds usually preserve both words unchanged. These are made up of two nouns, as in *motorman, hookworm, shotgun, baseball,* and *typewriter;* of a noun and an adjective or an adjective and a noun, as in *hollow-eyed, raw-boned, bold-faced, purse-proud, highway, stone-cold;* of an adverb and a verb in either order, as in a *walk-over,* a *come-down, undertake,* and *overdo;* of a verb and noun, as in *breakfast, scarecrow, driveway,* and *hangdog;* or of two prepositions, as in *into, until,* and *unto.*[1] A natural question here is that concerning the use of the hyphen in the compounds. When shall the hyphen be used, when omitted?

[1] For a fuller list see: Krapp, G. P. — *Modern English*, p. 188; Bradley, H. — *The Making of English*, p. 114; and MacKnight, G. H. — *Words and Their Backgrounds*, p. 168.

Unfortunately there is no general guide for the writer. All one can say is that *new* combinations are usually hyphenated, or the hyphen is used when there is felt to be a wide gap between the words, such as that in *purse-proud*, *stone-cold*, and *hollow-eyed*. Perhaps this feeling of the distinctness of the words comes from a real diversity in meaning; perhaps it arises from nothing more than the strangeness of seeing the two in such intimate association. In that case the feeling will disappear, taking the hyphen with it, as soon as the words have been seen linked together for three or four decades. The dictionaries report the usage as the editors observe it. When in doubt about the use of hyphens the writer has three possible guides. He may, if he has time, observe the practice of the best publishing houses; he may look the word up in the dictionary; or he may use his own judgment as to whether the two words are sufficiently attuned by similarity or long association to go together without the visible link. Individual judgment based on a nice sense of fitness is as good a guide as one needs when usage and the dictionaries do not agree.

Hybrids. — Some students of language, inclined to pedantry, object to all combinations of words made of an English word and a foreign prefix or suffix, or made of a foreign word with an English prefix or suffix. These words are called "hybrids." It is true that new hybrids of this kind often strike the ear of one who is sensitive to fineness in speech as awkward and incongruous. *Hypersensitive* is Latin in all its parts. *Hyperclean* is Latin and English, and unnecessary as well as awkward. Such a large number of hybrids have already found a place in

English and are so much at home there that they are not recognizable as being oddly formed. It would be unwise to try to dislodge them. No fault can be found with them except that they are hybrid. Their only fault is their name. Such words as *useless, rebuild, renew, readable, gentleman, distrust, intermingle, dishearten,* and *afternoon* all belong to this class.

Blends. — An interesting group of words has arisen from the creation of new words by a special form of composition. They are called "*blends.*" Two words are combined by taking elements from each and from these making a simple new word. *Chortle* is made from *chuckle* and *snort. Splatter* is a combination of *splash* and *spatter.* Many others could be cited. While this device of blending has been used to create words that have come into good literary usage, its chief effect is to produce either clever or humorous words. Of course, it often happens that a word so created as slang or as broad humor in time finds its way into regular use as an acceptable word. The following are a few of the humorous combinations, some accepted and some as yet regarded as slang: *Snark* is *snake* plus *shark; stunt* is probably *stump* plus *stint; dang* is *damn* plus *hang; boost* is *boom* plus *hoist; sweedle* is *swindle* plus *wheedle; humanzee* is *human* plus *chimpanzee; plumcot* is *plum* plus *apricot;* the remainder of the list is purely recent invention, not yet accepted, and not requiring explanation as to origin — *swellegant, frigitated, versiflage, futilitarian, yellocution,* and *flumonia.*

Derivation by means of prefixes and suffixes. — New words in large numbers are derived from old by attach-

ing to them prefixes and suffixes. These prefixes and suffixes standing alone do not now express full meanings like words, but the philologists are inclined to believe that they were once words and that they have been worn down, or " abraded," to the point where they no longer have complete meanings when standing alone. This can be seen in the suffix *ly* in *homely*. The suffix alone has no full meaning. It serves to make an adjective out of the noun *home*. The history of this suffix is known. It was the Old English adjective *lice* (pronounced as two syllables). It dropped the final *e* and then the *c* and changed the *i* to *y*. Under ordinary circumstances *homelike* and *homely* and perhaps *homey* should all have the same meaning; but each has its own connotation, and so we have three new words instead of one.

The use of prefixes and suffixes is the most prolific means now employed by the English language in the formation of new words. It is mentioned here only as one phase of making new words by composition. A fuller treatment of prefixes and suffixes will be reserved for later chapters.

Back formation. — Some very interesting word formations result from false notions of the construction of the words from which these new words are made. Bradley [1] calls attention to the noun *butcher* from the French *boucher*. The fact that it ends with the suffix *er* like *gardener* misleads some persons to believe that as a *gardener* is one who *gardens*, so a *butcher* is one who *butches*. This provides the unacceptable, crude verb *to butch*. Some scholars believe that *to beg* arose in the same way from

[1] *The Making of English*, p. 142.

French *begar*, and English *beggar*. The story of the verb *to edit* is similar. Back formation gives a number of humorous inventions such as *to buttle* from *butler*, *to broke* from *broker*, etc. Other examples of back formations may be seen in the creation of the singular noun *pea* from the older singular *pease*, which was a shortening of *peascod*, and not a plural form at all. *Cherry* was made on the supposition that the French *cerise* was plural. English first made a plural, *cherries*, and then the singular, *cherry*. This same type of word-creation accounts for a number of verbs made from nouns, such as the as yet unaccepted words *to vamp* from *vampire*, *to burgle* from *burglar*, *to jell* from *jelly*. *To sunburn*, *to edit*, and *to hawk*, made in the same way, are all accepted by careful writers.

Shortening. — There seems to be a natural tendency in all languages to shorten long words by clipping the endings or by using the beginning or end as if it were the whole word. *Almost* is shortened to *most* in such a sentence as "Most everybody came at nine." *Per cent* omits the final syllable of *per centum*. *Still* for *distillery* cuts off both ends of the word and leaves the middle. This method of making words is closely akin to that which we call "back formation."

Popular creation, or folk etymology. — Sometimes a shortened word at first was merely a jocular invention knowingly made and recognized as below the level of good English. This is true of *cit* for *citizen*, *phiz* for *physiognomy*, *incog* for *incognito*, *rhino* for *rhinoceros*, *memo* for *memorandum*, *steno* for *stenographer*, *pram* for *perambulator*, *exams* for *examinations*, *prelims* for *prelim-*

inaries, and *prep* for *preparatory*. But the creation by popular inventions of such shortened forms as *drawing-room* from *with-drawing room*, *mob* from *mobile-vulgus*, *still* from *distillery*, *curio* from *curiosity*, *auto* from *automobile*, *extra* from *extraordinary*, and *chap* from *chapman* (a trader), *size* from *assize*, *tend* from *attend*, *lone* (adjective) from *alone* (earlier *all one*), *live* from *alive* (earlier *on live*), *fend* from *defend*, and *stain* from *distain* (Old French *disteindre*, to take out the dye), and *sport* from *disport* all seem to have been made naturally and in good faith as good words, though in most cases one cannot be positive as to why a word was so constructed after the word from which it was derived has been accepted for a long time.

Some of these shortenings are so striking that a fuller explanation than mere mention is due them. Bradley [1] makes a very interesting story of the word *culprit*. The story of our word *taxi* is perhaps the most curious of all these stories of words. The full form should be *taximeter motor cabriolet*. But long ago *cabriolet* became *cab*, as *omnibus* was shortened to *bus*. When motor cars were first equipped with automatic meters to make the charge for service, they were called not *taximeter motor cabs* but the shorter form *taxi-cabs*. And now the *cab* is cut off and the remnant of an adjective is made into a noun with both a singular and plural form, one *taxi* and six *taxis*. Economy could go no further.

Other ways of creating new words. — In addition to this already rather long list of ways of creating words there are still others, two of which will be given fuller

[1] *The Making of English*, p. 153.

treatment later in a discussion of slang and in a fuller exposition of folk etymology. They are mentioned here merely to indicate that they belong in this chapter and are, like those sources already briefly treated, regular means for enlarging our vocabulary or of refining meanings so as to make the language exact, full, vigorous, and forceful. A striving for forcefulness often leads to picturesqueness, sometimes to coarseness. In conclusion it must be admitted that the greatest number of contributions to the language and those most useful in the long run come from the speech of the people. Words are created not chiefly by scholars and literary men but by the people who use the language most freely in vital oral communication.

Multiplication of words by multiplying functions. — What is the part of speech of *head, hand, foot, arm?* Each is the name of a part of the human body. Each is a noun. But each may have several meanings, and these meanings may not all be names. *Head* may be a noun when it refers to the *head* of a man, the *head* of a pin, the *head* (leader) of an army, the *head* (chief person) of a state, the *head* (source) of a river, a *head* of water in an irrigating canal, a hundred *head* of cattle, or to one division of an argument. It is a verb in such expressions as *to head* the delegation and *to head* the wheat (cut off the heads). It is an adjective in such combinations as *head-cook* and *head-master*. The *New International Dictionary* gives twenty-seven noun, four adjective, and thirteen verbal uses, a total of forty-three. Is *head* one word or forty-three? In the same way each of the other words has many meanings as noun, verb,

and adjective. Instead of inventing a new word for each of the forty-three uses of *head,* we give a new meaning to a word already created and thus increase the effectiveness of the language without increasing the vocabulary.

This same practice of differentiation permits not only nouns to become adjectives, verbs to become nouns, nouns to become verbs, and adjectives to become nouns, but also pronouns to be used as nouns, as in the *unexpressive she* of Shakespeare, and the plural *shes* of Roosevelt; adverbs become verbs, as in *he downed his opponent;* adverbs become nouns, as in *now is the time;* adjectives become verbs, as in *the house fronts the street;* prepositions become adjectives, as in *a through train,* and *an under-secretary,* and *a by-product.* Fuller examples of these and other similar differentiations are listed by Krapp,[1] and also examples of the practice of making two words by shifting the accent, as in *con'tract* (a noun) and *con tract'* (a verb).

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

Each of the four reports suggested below is sufficiently important to constitute a term paper for the student who does the extensive reading outlined and works out the results with ample illustrations and with diagrams, so as to make the subject clear to other members of the class who do not have time for these readings.

1. Sign Language.
   Encyclopædia Britannica.
2. The Growth of the Alphabet.
   Encyclopædia Britannica.

[1] *Modern English,* pp. 197–199.

3. The Development of Language.

GREENOUGH, J. B., and KITTREDGE, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, pp. 1–6 and p. 391.

JESPERSEN, OTTO — *Language, Its Nature, Development, and Origin.*

SCOTT, H. F., and CARR, W. L. — *Development of Language*, pp. 13–20.

WYLD, H. C. — *Historical Study of the Mother Tongue*, Chapter III.

4. Word Making in English.

BRADLEY, H. — *The Making of English*, Chapter IV.

GREENOUGH, J. B., and KITTREDGE, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, Chapter XIII.

KRAPP, G. P. — *Modern English*, pp. 183–193.

MCKNIGHT, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, Chapter XII.

CHAPTER VIII

Changes in the Meanings of Words

A living language. — In the preceding chapter we have been dealing with the creation of words and with the changes that occur in the forms of words. We turn now to changes in meaning. The terms *living language* and *dead language* are in common use. A dead language, one that is no longer the medium of communication of any national group, does not change. What Cicero wrote and spoke is the Latin language to-day. The forms of the words have not changed. A living language on the contrary is never static either in form or meaning. Like other living things, a language is constantly responding to the environment in which it is set. It adds to itself; it changes its forms; old forms take on new meanings; and some drop away after outliving their usefulness. There are typical ways of making changes in meaning as there are ways of creating new words and of changing the forms of old ones. When people were in the primitive state and were making words to name things or express actions, we have reason to believe that their words were very concrete and narrowly limited in meaning. But as time passed those words of single meanings began to have shades of meaning not present when they were newly created. For example, in the beginning, *green* as a general idea of color may have been associated always with the green of grass, green of leaves,

green of a bird's feathers. With a higher degree of civilization the color may have been thought of in the abstract, that is, without associating it with grass or any other specific thing. That would have been the first step in generalization. Now, if it were noticed that green-colored bananas or apples were unripe and unfit to eat, *green* would have been further generalized to mean unripe, immature. Then a young person who was not mature in experience or in years might be *green* in another generalization.

Generalization. — The process of widening the range of the application of words from their original, specific meaning is called " generalization." *Circus* had for its original meaning merely *circle.* In our day a circus is a performance given for entertainment, commonly under an oval tent, the performers usually exhibiting their skill in physical feats in circular rings, on square platforms, and on suspended aërial apparatus. Or since the coming of the airplane we have the *flying circus* consisting of a number of flyers coöperating in daring evolutions in the air. In Rome one of the chief places of entertainment was in the place called the " Great Circle," *Circus Maximus.* From this word *Circus,* a circular place, by generalization we have *circus* in all the senses now current, even to the slang expression meaning merely hilarious entertainment.

It is said [1] that carved figures of unnatural proportions and shapes were first produced in underground rooms or caverns in Italy. *Grotta* is the name for such a cavern. A generalization of the name attached itself to

[1] Scott, H. F., and Carr, W. L. — *The Development of Language,* p. 136.

the figures, and we call them *grotesque*. *Proposition* in colloquial language, especially in business, has become so generalized that it is little more than a filler for a blank in a sentence. Its Latin meaning is *the thing set before*. One sets forth a proposition for consideration. One proposes to do a given thing or to accept an offer. Or in mathematics certain propositions are set up for consideration. The word has become so generalized that a salesman not only proposes to do a thing — that is, "makes a proposition" — but even calls the thing he wishes to sell a *proposition*. A book is a proposition; even the grocer praising a cheese tells his customer that that proposition can't be duplicated anywhere in the city. One who is sensitive to the fine meanings of words will shudder at such profanation and call it business slang, but even slang sometimes contributes to the stock of words and to the generalization of meanings.

The word *thing* occurs four times in the preceding paragraph. That word illustrates another phase of generalization — the widening of the application of a word until it loses its specific meaning. Many words have gone through this process. It is difficult to attach a specific meaning to such words as *thing*, *affair*, *business*, *concern*, *regard*, *account*, *circumstance*, *fact*, *state*, *situation*, *way*, *means*, *respect*, and *matter*, when they are used in such expressions as —

The *fact* that the election was contested is significant.
On this *account* they declined to go.
Our decision was made under the following *circumstances*.
Without discussing *means*, he spoke to me in *regard* to the *way* in which the *affair* could be handled.

A literal analysis of such a phrase as *the following circumstances* reveals a world of more than three dimensions. The person who would do so and so *under the following circumstances* would be beneath the things which stand around him following him, for *circumstances* means *the things which stand around.*

Box is another word which has gained a wide variety of meanings but which has altogether lost its first specific meaning. *Box* was first the boxwood from which small wooden containers were made. Then it was any kind of wooden case. Now it need not be of wood at all. A box may be of strawboard, of tin, iron, or copper. The word may be a verb. Articles are *boxed* for shipment. It may be an adjective, as in *box car.*

Generalization seems to imply disintegration and dissolution. It may be that words die by losing their specific meanings, that they fade out to such a degree that they are no longer capable of serving any useful purpose, but that is not their usual course. The term is one used to describe the lifting of a word from a single specific application to a position in which it can be of wider usefulness than it could be as a narrowly concrete term. It is true that words like *thing* and *fact* are little more than "*counters or markers in the game of speech*";[1] but even at that they are so valuable that we should not be willing to get along without them. Counters are important in the speech game.

Fading. — The kind of generalization that raises a word and gives to it wider applications is a distinct aid in making a language expressive, but carried to the

[1] *Words and Their Ways in English Speech,* p. 240.

extreme, which is called *fading*, the process destroys words so far as any specific meaning is concerned. This is made clear by Greenough and Kittredge[1] in a consideration of the three phrases *at any rate*, *at all events*, and *in any case*. When these are used in sentences they may be used almost interchangeably, as if the words *rate*, *events*, *case* had lost all of their specific meanings. *In any case, at all events, at any rate, the reports will be filed before noon.* The three phrases are merely the adverb *anyhow* said in three ways. The fading that is apparent here does not, however, affect other meanings of the words *rate*, *event*, and *case* — " the *rate* of speed of an automobile," " the *events* of 1914," " a *case* in a court of justice." In these phrases the words have very specific meanings, as they have also in other of their applications.

Specialization. — The process of expanding and raising from narrow specific meanings to wider general applications would necessitate the constant invention of new specific terms to take the places of the generalized words, if it were not for the balancing which comes from a process in language called " specialization." Of course, it often happens that new words are created to take the place of words that have faded through generalization, but the balance is maintained by the other process. *Journal* is a generalized word. It is made of the French *jour* plus the Latin suffix *al*. This suffix serves to make adjectives from nouns by supplying some such meaning as *pertaining to* or *appropriate to*, as in *autumnal*. A publication that may appropriately be

[1] *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, p. 240.

called a journal should be, then, a *daily* newspaper. But by generalization we have in perfectly good use the word applied to daily, weekly, and monthly publications. To balance that generalization we have the specialization of the word *magazine*. The general meaning of the word is *storehouse*. In English the word is used in that sense chiefly to apply to a storehouse for ammunition or other military supplies, but in Italian (*magazzino*) and in French (*magasin*) the word has a wider application as a storehouse or even as a shop for retail selling. Our language has specialized the word so that in one sense it is now a storehouse for literature, or for writing ambitious to be called literature. A *magazine* is a publication, usually monthly or weekly, made up of a collection of essays, stories, poems, etc. The word *quarterly* is another specialization for a particular kind of *magazine* published four times in a year.

The English *hotel* and *hospital* are both special meanings evolved from the Latin *hospitalis*, meaning *pertaining to a guest*. The hotel receives " paying " guests only, and the hospital usually receives guests who are ill; while some hospitals, by a further specialization by way of connotation, require that their guests be insane. *Ghost* once meant *spirit* in general. It now means a disembodied soul reappearing on earth. The old general meaning is preserved in the name *Holy Ghost*. *Spill* in its literal sense is *to destroy*. A liquid is destroyed when the vessel that contained it is tipped over. The meaning of *spill* is now narrowed to that particular kind of destruction. Shakespeare in *King Lear* uses the expression " rats and mice and such small deer." *Deer* meant

animals of any kind, as it still does in the German *Tier*. In English *deer* applies to only one kind of animal. It has lost its general meaning in going over to a particular application. *Hint* has been specialized from its earlier meaning of an *occasion* or *opportunity* to the special meaning of a veiled suggestion that an occasion or opportunity be used. The word comes from *hent* meaning *to take*. *Fond* is the past participle of *fonnen*, a word that had the general meaning *to be foolish*. Shakespeare was probably using it in its old general sense when he had Hamlet resolve to " wipe away all trivial fond records " in order that he might not forget his purpose of avenging his father's murder. But to be *fond* now has the special meaning of *being affectionate toward*. When a mother is fond of her child, there is now no connotation of her being foolish about her baby, although one sometimes hears of a mother who " is perfectly foolish about that baby."

A few words will suffice to illustrate a tendency, when there is a good and a bad, a pleasant and an unpleasant meaning, to specialize on the evil and the unpleasant. *Stink* is from the Old English *stincan*, a word meaning *to have a smell*, whether pleasant or unpleasant. *Stench* is from the same source. Although Dryden alluded to " clouds of savory *stench*," the use of these words in any but the unsavory implication is long obsolete. Even *odor* and *smell* are in danger of following *stink* and *stench*. When one hears such an expression as " Well, it can't be denied; there *is* an *odor* in these rooms; they have a *smell*," it is quite evident that the smell or odor referred to is unpleasant. *Fellow* illustrates the same tendency

to specialize toward the unpleasant. The word formerly meant a *partner* or *companion*. Now it often implies an unworthy or low person, as in the distinction between a *gentleman* and a *fellow*. Another word that has lost its general meaning for a special low meaning is the verb *to harbor*. Once this word meant *to afford lodging to, to receive as a guest, to shelter*. The word still has this meaning; but in newspapers it has been so frequently used in the sense of sheltering criminals that a hotel or a private house is not spoken of as *harboring* guests or visitors. *Execute* is still another word that has chosen the "worser part." Originally the officers of the law were instructed to *execute* the judgment of the court. That meant to carry out the will of the court, whether to collect a money fine, to set a prisoner at liberty, to imprison him, or to hang him. *Execution* took on the last of these meanings — the carrying out of the severest possible judgment of the court.

In *Recessional*, Kipling speaks of a "reeking tube." Here are two words whose meanings have been narrowed by specialization. The Italian word for *cannon* is *cannone* and means *a large tube*. *Reek* occurs in Old English and Old Frisian as *rek* and in modern German as *rauch*, and means merely *to smoke*. This is its literary meaning in English, but it has a connotation of *foul smelling vapor*. Kipling in speaking of a "reeking tube" was using simple words in their literary sense, meaning *smoking cannon*.

Before leaving this subject it may be well to say once more that words are restless things, never quite content to keep exactly the same form or the same meaning from decade to decade, from century to century; but the

transformations which they undergo both as to form and meaning follow fairly regular patterns; and the change from specific and concrete meanings to general meanings approaching the abstract is one of the regular patterns. Specialization, the opposite of generalization, is another, and is just as important, just as frequent as generalization.

Degeneration and elevation. — Two other transformations through which the meanings of words go are likewise complementary to each other; and it is possible to illustrate these changes in some cases by the very words that were used to illustrate generalization and specialization. Some words from high stations in life slip down by stages to the depths, while others with humble beginnings are called to high places. The first transformation is called "degeneration," the second "elevation." Again the two processes are complementary; but so much attention has been given to degeneration and so little to elevation that the impression has been that words tend to go downward and never to rise toward the heights.

Degeneration. — When Fluellen in Henry IV reported that he had *astonished* Pistol by striking him over the head with a stick, he used the word in a much stronger sense than it now has. The word comes indirectly from the Latin *ex* (*out of*) and *tonare* (*to thunder*). In Middle English the verb was *astonien*. Sir Philip Sidney used this word without the humorous coloring it has in *Henry IV* when he wrote, "The captain of the Helots strake Palladius upon the side of his head, that he reeled *astonied*." He reeled as if he had been struck by a

thunderstone, or as if *thunderstruck*. Does one *reel* now when astonished? *Astonished* at present may express mild surprise. Even *thunderstruck* is losing most of its sense of crude physical force. One may not only be *annoyed* at not being able to get good seats in the theater for Tuesday evening but even *astonished*. One may be *astonished* upon hearing of the intention of a distant cousin to pay a long-deferred visit. Advertisers are aware of the deterioration of words through familiar use. They constantly strive to call up stronger and stronger words to take the place of words that have weakened through use. Goods are to be sold at " Less than Cost," at a " Sacrifice," at a " Remarkable Sacrifice," at a " Tremendous Sacrifice."

King Henry in 1258 addressed his proclamation to all his faithful " *ilærde* (the *clergy* — the *learned*) and *ileawede* (the *lewd* — the *unlearned, common people*) on Huntendon ' schir.' " When he called his people *lewd*, there was no disparagement in the term. He meant only to address the clergy and the laity. But since only the clergy were educated, *lewd* came to mean ignorant; then it meant *low* in such senses as " *lewd* fellows of the baser sort," and finally to imply a special kind of baseness, *lasciviousness*.

Words that promise action without any delay illustrate the tendency to degeneration. It seems to be human nature to procrastinate; and words, as if they had a kind of uncanny genius for reflecting the traits of men, show this tendency to put off " till a more convenient season " what should be done at once. *By and by* meant *side by side*, the promise to do and the fulfillment of the promise

side by side. But now when one's case is to be taken up *by and by*, the phrase may signify hopeless delay. A child promises to do an errand for her mother *presently*. That is better than *by and by*, but not so good as *directly*. *At once*, *this instant*, *immediately*, and *this very second* are all attempts to find words which will give greater assurance of promptitude than those other words that once meant the same thing, that is, *action without delay*. Doubtless these too will fade, and others will have to be devised or called into service to take their places.

Under the discussion of specialization (page 122) attention was called to the word *execute*. Through degeneration, falling from a high and honorable position, it acquired a special meaning. These processes here treated as if they were distinct each from the other are really not so. They are shown as separate because the effects are different, and not because one word is subject to one process and immune from another.

Other words that illustrate the principle of degeneration are *caitiff*, *knave*, *harbor*, *fellow*, *feline*, *giddy*, *vulgar*, *homely*, *plain*, *degraded*, *sanctimonious*, *prude*, *minion*, *doughty*, *dapper*, *peasant*, *villain*, *silly*, *pedantry*, *naughty*, *fie*, *bashful*, *senile*, *menial*, *servant*, *wench*, *counterfeit*, *curiosity*, *inquisitiveness*, *cheat*, *scavenger*, *stupid*, *sullen*, *garble*, *daft*, *visitation*, *socialist*, *radical*, *fiddle*, *asylum*, and *churl*. These forty-one words may suggest to the student that all English words now having unpleasant or belittling connotations were once in better standing, or even that all good words are in danger of falling to low estate. This conclusion, while based upon

rather a large generalization, would not be justified by all the facts. Another caution needs to be given here. One who studies the etymologies of words and especially looks up earlier uses of them is in some danger of falling into the error of concluding that a word means or should mean what its origin implies. Educators some years ago engaged in very warm debates as to the meaning of *education* and tried to settle the matter by referring to the Latin origin of the word *education* to prove that all the educative process could do was to *unfold* what was already in the child's mind in germ. Nothing could be proved by the etymology of the word. It would be foolish to try to prove by etymology and early meanings that the village constable should be a military officer with the rank of major general because once the Constable of France was the commander-in-chief of the army, and the Constable of England, or the Lord High Constable, was one of the highest officers under the English Crown. On the other hand, there is no reason to support an argument that he should have special charge of the livery stables just because originally the word was *comes stabuli,* or *count of the stable.* Words do not necessarily mean what they meant when first coined nor even what they meant later in their history. To be sure, both of those factors usually influence their present use, but not always. A *candidate* has now absolutely nothing to do with being dressed in white, nor has a *lunatic* any associations with the moon. Words mean what they are understood to mean by educated persons who are careful to inquire into the speech customs of cultured, educated literary men and women. These meanings of words are

the meanings that are observed by the makers of dictionaries.

Elevation. — While many words degenerate in meaning, the opposite process, that of elevation, is not without ample illustration. Words with humble beginnings come to occupy high places just as many boys and girls from very modest beginnings rise to high positions in the world. We have already seen how the count of the stable became the Constable of France. In like manner the keeper of the pigs, the Old English *stig-weard* (the *sty ward*) became a Lord High Steward. Later a family who had the related name *Stuart* became kings of Scotland and England. *Marshal,* from *mearh scalc* a *horse servant,* is now a title of high rank. *Seneschal,* from *sene scalc,* an *old servant,* becomes the name of an officer who gives commands rather than serves. *Court* comes from *cohort,* an *inclosure* or *poultry yard.*

Some exceedingly interesting stories of words that have risen from very modest beginnings may be traced by reading the histories of the following words in the New English or any other unabridged dictionary: *chamberlain, broker, minister, engineer, pioneer, ambassador, squire, chivalrous, gallant, majesty, civility, sturdy, frill, service, prestige, barter, blouse, boudoir, virtue,* and *fame.*

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

Four individual studies for reports to the class are suggested in connection with this chapter. The reports should be oral or written accounts of the changes in meaning of all the words studied in the

suggested readings and of others that come to the attention of the student through the study of the dictionary.

1. Generalization.
   - Bradley, H. — *The Making of English*, pp. 177–180.
   - Greenough, J. B., and Kittredge, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, pp. 234–247.
   - McKnight, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, pp. 248–256.
2. Specialization.
   - Bradley, H. — *The Making of English*, pp. 180–184.
   - Greenough, J. B., and Kittredge, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, pp. 247–258.
   - McKnight, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, pp. 256–264.
3. Degeneration.
   - Greenough, J. B., and Kittredge, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, pp. 284–299.
   - McKnight, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, pp. 280–288.
4. Elevation.
   - McKnight, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, pp. 288–292.

So little has been written on this last phase of the change of meaning that the student who takes the topic will be obliged to work up a list of words from the dictionary from such suggestions as he can get from McKnight.

CHAPTER IX

Transference, Radiation, Folk Etymology, and Slang

New word forms and new applications. — Some effort has been made in these chapters to keep separate the consideration of changes in the language that bring new words into use or that alter the forms of words already in use and thus to all intents create new words, and those changes that affect the meanings of the words rather than their forms. So long as the subject is root-formation, or derivation from other languages, or loss of inflections, or word-creation by means of prefixes and suffixes, this can be done fairly well; but there are changes in meaning that create new uses of old words. These new applications of the words are practically equivalent to new words. When the noun *head* is used as an adjective in such a combination as *head usher*, or as a verb in *heads the list*, we practically have the English vocabulary increased by two new words. The same is true when by the use of a figure of speech a new meaning is added to a word. In this chapter, a number of ways in which words change their forms, and perhaps their meanings also, will be considered.

Transference. — There is a tendency to shift the application of a word from one element in a sentence to another in such a way as to give it a new meaning or at least an altered meaning. *Shame* is a noun. *Shameful*,

an adjective indicating *full of* or *abounding in shame*, is properly used in its original sense when we say, "Lying is shameful"; that is, lying is an act abounding in shame. But the meaning is transferred to something that could not of itself be full of shame, when we speak of "shameful neglect." This means neglect that should cause some person to be full of shame. "Transference, or a sudden shift in the point of view (from subject to object), is likely to happen at any moment." [1] This is illustrated by *dreadful chasm, painful labor, careless trifle, friendly smile, wise advice.* In these examples the shift has been from the person to the thing.

Transference often proceeds also from the thing to the person — that is, in the reverse order from that which we have been considering. An argument or a discourse may be *logical*, a mine or a chasm of some depth may be *profound*, a quotation may be *literal*, but it is only by a transfer from object to person that a man may be logical, a scholar profound, or a mind literal.

There are other directions in which transference of meaning occurs, as for example the transfer in verbs that makes the Greek middle voice and the German and French reflexive verbs unnecessary in English; but the brief treatment of changes in meaning that these chapters afford can be nothing more than an introduction to the subject and a direction to the books in which a fuller treatment may be found. Four significant sentences may be quoted from the final paragraph of a chapter by Greenough and Kittredge on "Transference of Meaning."

[1] Greenough, J. B., and Kittredge, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, p. 275.

English is full of happy misapplications of words. They should serve as warnings to the puristic pedant, and may, perhaps, encourage aspiring neologists. But the only safe course is to be sure that the misapplication is so happy that the rest of the world will adopt it. Then despite the purists, you have enriched the English language.[1]

Radiation. — When a word, by transfer, by euphemism, by becoming a verb or an adjective as well as a noun, or by the working of other kinds of linguistic machinery, takes on a new meaning, it often retains its old meaning as well. It is as if the word were the central source from which new meanings shot out like spokes from the hub of a wheel. But each of these new meanings may itself become a radiating center from which other meanings develop. Three figures have been suggested to aid the student in visualizing the growth of many meanings from one:[2] (1) radiation, as described above; (2) concatenation, or linking together in a series; and (3) the figure of the strawberry plant multiplying by runners. The original word, like the plant, sends out, let us say, three or four runners. Each of these takes root and becomes a center for three or four others radiating from it as a new center. But all the time the original plant is there, as a living thing. It does not die as soon as its own off-shoots take root.

The radiation of the meanings of the noun *heart* will illustrate this process. First, there is the central word in its anatomical meaning. Then the several noun meanings radiate from that center; and *heart* is used to mean *courage, affection,* the *center* of a tree or a cabbage, the

[1] Greenough, J. B., and Kittredge, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, p. 283.

[2] McKnight, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, p. 216.

vital part of anything, the *disposition*, etc. And from each of these as a center there are other radiations. In all of this radiation of meaning the thread, or runner, still lies on the ground and can be traced from the most remote plant back through the various centers to the original source.

There is another arrangement by means of which words take on new meanings and leave no trace of the connections through which the change was made. It is as if the central plant had sent out tendrils, which wholly disappeared as soon as the new plant had taken root. One sees the words *person* and *parson*. The dictionary indicates that they are doublets coming from the Latin *persona*. But *persona* means *a mask*.[1] How could *mask* ever send out a word that once in the best sense meant a parish priest, but now only in a jocular way means a minister of the Christian religion? This happens through a series of alternate generalizations and specializations of meaning. It is like jumping from a wharf to an outgoing boat in three jumps. Traces of the two intermediate landings are lost. The steps are about as follows:

First, a general meaning, *mask*.

Second, a specific meaning, a *character in a drama* indicated by the appropriate mask worn for the part.

Third, a general meaning, any character or *rôle* in a play.

Fourth, specific, one who *represents* a character in a play.

Fifth, general, any kind of *representative*.

[1] Greenough, J. B., and Kittredge, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, p. 268.

Sixth, specific, a *representative of the church* in a parish.
Seventh, general, a *parson* or minister.

The student might find diversion in trying to reconstruct the steps between a *she-goat* and a *taxicab*, between a *feather* and a *lead pencil*, between the *bite of a wild animal* and *treacle* (*molasses*), between *a person dressed in white* and *an office-seeker*, between *a coarse woolen cloth* and *a department of the national government* (*the weather bureau*), between *a love affair* (*romance*), and *a citizen of imperial Rome*, or between *molar* and *emolument*.

Doublets. — When a word from any cause assumes two different forms in the language, the two are called "doublets." Doublets may be due merely to difference in stress in the sentence, as in the case of *to* and *too*, or *of* and *off;* or they may have come from two different dialects, or at different times, into the language and so be used to mean slightly different or wholly different things. *Fat* and *vat* are doublets from two different dialects, and so are *dent* and *dint*. Other doublets are *captive* and *caitiff; corps* and *corpse; conceit* and *conception; frail* and *fragile; diamond* and *adamant; balm* and *balsam; fancy*, *fantasy*, and *phantasy; priest* and *presbyter; guard* and *ward; gage* and *guarantee; mead* and *meadow; mister* and *master; through* and *thorough; shirt* and *skirt; guest* and *hostile; dainty* and *dignity*, and many more. One has only to look up the origins of these words to see how the differences in form and meaning came about.

Doublets are related words. Their relationship can usually be detected through similarity of form or meaning, and usually through both. There are, however, cases of doublets that are quite different in form, as, for

example, *hyena* and *sow; rose* and *rhododendron.* Still other doublets having some likeness in form are totally different in meaning, as, for example, *corps* and *corpse, lumber* and *Lombard, bench* and *bank.*

Homonyms. — The pairs of words of another classification are identical in pronunciation and sometimes in spelling but different in origin and in meaning. These are called homonyms. Their presence in the language seems to be due to no law but coincidence; but it is interesting, sometimes amusing, to see what has been brought about by coincidence. The word *weeds* (plants) looks like *weeds* (garments), still spoken of as *widow's weeds;* but the two are from different Anglo-Saxon roots. We have three words, *vice,* all from different origins. *Vice,* a moral lapse, is from Latin *vitium,* French *vice; vice,* a mechanic's clutching tool, is from French *vis,* a *screw;* while *vice* in *vice president* is from the Latin ablative form *vicis,* meaning *turn.* The dictionaries will supply information concerning the origin of these words. There is no greater mystery about them than about any other chance similarity in a world where two things out of thousands just happen to be alike or to bear a close resemblance to each other.

The only teaching problem that arises in connection with homonyms is how most economically and effectively to teach the spelling of the few homonyms that are pronounced alike but spelled differently; such as, *their, there; soar, sore; fare, fair; sane, seine;* and *rain, reign.* This point will be considered in the chapter on spelling.

Folk etymology. — We have already said that the greater proportion of new words is created by popular

use in speech. The patterns upon which words are fashioned are so few in number and so well understood that new words usually conform to one of them even when coined by speakers of no great erudition. Occasionally, however, a word is created, supposedly after an accepted pattern, but in reality in opposition to the customs of English word-making, through false analogy, through ignorance of what the core of the word originally meant, or through some similar mistaken notion. These odd creations are known as the results of folk etymology. *Wormwood* has no connection with either *worm* or *wood*. Attention has already been called to the singular word *cherry*, assumed to be the singular of the French *cerise* and middle English *cheris*, words already singular. *Bridegroom* is a mistake. *Guma*, the Old English word for *man* was confused with *groom*, an attendant. *Frontispiece* has no connection with *piece*.

Ignorant speakers have made singulars for *Chinese*, *Portuguese*, and *Japanese*. They have made *sparrowgrass* from *asparagus*, *hearty choke* from *artichoke*, *countrydance* from *contre-dance*, *Yankees* and a singular form, *Yankee*, possibly from the Dutch name *Jan Kees*. One of the favorite devices of authors to make an ignorant character ridiculously humorous is to make him use words of such queer etymology. Sheridan's Mrs. Malaprop in *The Rivals*, and Smollett's Winifred Jenkins in *Humphrey Clinker* are typical coiners of inappropriate words.

In one way or another, in spelling or supposed meaning, the following words have been subjected to the process of folk etymology: *hawker*, *ravening*, *hostler*, *sirloin*, *rarebit*, *slowworm*, *hiccough*, *rhyme*, *perfect*, *cutlass*, *lan-*

yard, sand-blind, shamefaced, crawfish, penthouse, rake, belfrey, primrose, warlock, sackbut, touchy, tuberose, rosemary, tarantula, battledoor, pennyroyal, artichoke, walnut, mandrake, standard, purblind, abominable, pantry, buttery, reindeer, tweezers, headlong, sidelong, foremost. The dictionary will aid the student in determining what the form or meaning might have been if the words had come into being along the regular channels for word-creation and -modification and had followed the usual patterns.

Again it is well to caution the student against assuming that a word is not acceptable unless its pedigree is regular. *Sand-blind* is the acceptable form of that word, notwithstanding the fact that somebody made the mistake of thinking that *sam* (the old spelling, the Old English word for *half*, like the Latin *semi*) had something to do with *sand*. For any individual to try to correct the mistake by insisting upon *sam-blind* would only serve to make him a laughing stock. Already the writers of cookery-books have amused us by trying to make a good and regular word out of *Welsh rabbit*. Even the linguists sometimes make mistakes, as in the case of inserting an *s* in *iland* on the supposition that the word was *isle* plus *land*. No matter who makes the mistake, after it is once made and accepted in our speech and literature, it is very difficult to correct it. The language is what the majority of cultured, educated people say and write.

Slang. — Slang dictionaries have been written, but slang is such an evanescent thing that such dictionaries are behind the practice before they can be printed. They are useful in many ways in spite of this inability

to keep up with the current slang inventions. They serve as depositories for the expressions current at the time they were printed. By means of such a dictionary, one that gives the dates when the slang expressions were current, a student can form an idea of the proportion of such words that find their way into standard usage, and he can also determine approximately the normal length of life of a slang expression. Slang is one phase of the popular invention of words, which we have already noticed as a prolific means of increasing the vocabulary and of keeping it alive and serviceable. Slang is one of the ore beds from which the raw mineral to be used in word-coinage is mined. But the proportion of priceless words that come from this source is about the proportion of radium to pitchblende, one ounce of radium to five hundred tons of pitchblende. Perhaps the proportion is higher than that. One who is inclined to use slang must have in mind its dangers as well as its values. It keeps the language picturesque and vivid. Too much of it makes garish speech. The habit of using it robs the speaker of his best vocabulary of legitimate, finely discriminating words, so that when he wishes to speak exactly and to use speech at its best, when he wishes to employ appropriate and varied diction, he finds like Osric that "all's golden words are spent." No attempt is made here to list the slang current at this time, for new slang springs up so quickly, and that of yesterday fades so soon, that it is useless even to try to illustrate a point with current slang.

One needs only to recall a few of the words of the past ten years that were used to signify *money* to realize how

quickly these words come and go. It was "chink," "long green," "spondulix," "kale," "dough," "hard-earned." Then the dollar was a "buck," a "washer," an "iron man." To-day the paper dollar is the "Jewish flag," and money in general is "Jack." What it will be when this chapter is in print no man can prophesy.

The contribution of slang to legitimate vocabulary. — Slang is evanescent, but now and then it brings into use a word for which there seems to be a real need in the language. When that happens, the word lives. *Nincompoop*, *carouse*, and *hoax* were slang. *Buncombe*, *bombast*, *cockney*, *bamboozle*, *bias*, *chap*, *salary*, *sardonic*, and *white feather* were probably all slang at one time or another; but out of the coinage of three hundred years the few pieces "not cracked i' the ring" are so very scarce that the earlier figure of radium in pitchblende seems not to be an underestimation.

No one but an incurable and impractical purist would banish slang altogether. When just the right, vivid word to illuminate a sentence can be found in the slang vocabulary, it is poor judgment not to accept and use it; but one must remember that the rare flash of light makes more of an impression than the uninterrupted glare. Use slang very rarely. Use it as a humorous flash. Beware of the slang habit.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

1. Transference of Meaning.
   - Greenough, J. B., and Kittredge, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, Chapter XIX.
   - McKnight, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, pp. 210–216.
2. Folk Etymology.
   - Greenough, J. B., and Kittredge, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, Chapter XXIII.
   - McKnight, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, Chapter XIII.
   - Palmer, A. S. — *The Folk and Their Word Lore.*
   - Weekley, E. — *The Romance of Words*, Chapter IX.
3. Doublets and Homonyms.
   - Emerson, O. F. — *History of the English Language*, Sections 146, 148, 189, 303.
   - Greenough, J. B., and Kittredge, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, Chapter XXIV.
   - McKnight, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, pp. 131–134, 152–154, 167, 388.
4. Slang.
   - Bradley, H. — Article on "Slang," *Encyclopædia Britannica.*
   - Greenough, J. B., and Kittredge, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, Chapter IV and p. 304.
   - McKnight, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, Chapter IV.
   - Mencken, H. L. — *The American Language*, Chapter XI.

CHAPTER X

Changes of Meaning through Figures of Speech

The principal figures of speech. — The six principal figures of speech that operate to modify the meanings of words are euphemism, hyperbole, metaphor, simile, metonymy, and synecdoche. In this chapter an attempt will be made to show how the use of each of these figures operates to modify or shift the meaning of words, and a few illustrations will be given to make concrete each of the modifications.

Changes brought about by euphemism. — Euphemism literally means to "speak well" or to "speak fair." One who speaks euphemistically refuses to call a spade a spade. An old and persistent superstition caused men to avoid using the name of any dreaded thing for fear the thing itself would descend upon them. Death was not mentioned directly, but in vague, "fair" terms. One *passed away*. He was not referred to as *dead*, but *gone away*, *departed*, or *deceased*. "Fair words" are invented to this day for all things that have to do with death, and as soon as one of these becomes definitely associated with death a new euphemism is invented for it. The establishment of a funeral undertaker is first *the undertaker's*, without the grim word. Then it is successively a *funeral chapel*, a *funeral parlor*, a *mortuary*, and a *funeral home*. Now a *parlor* is a room primarily

for conversation, and a *home* is the habitual abode of a family. These terms carry euphemism to the extreme. *Burial* itself is first *interment*, and then *laying to rest.*

Fair speaking is used when one refers to lying. *Lie* is "a short and ugly word" and very offensive. Why should one take greater offense at being accused of *lying* than when charged with *prevarication*, or *romancing*, or *misrepresenting*, or *telling a fib, a fish story, a fairy tale*, or *a whopper?* A public official accused of lying admitted that he had perhaps been *disingenuous, not wholly candid.*

Conviction of crime is likewise veiled in the mild terms of euphemism. *Theft* in business is described as *misappropriation of funds, shortage in accounts*, or *books not balancing.* Newspapers to avoid libel charges must use the word *alleged* when referring to a crime before the criminal has been convicted, as in the *alleged misdemeanor*, even in cases where the offense is a known atrocious crime. There are veiled names for prisons. Note the jocular Irish *stone jug* or *jug*, and the American use of *penitentiary* and *reformatory* — places for penitents, to remake delinquents. The English still adhere to the old, grim words *prison* and *gaol.* One suspected of crime is *wanted.* Then a *warrant* is *served* (*arrest* is avoided); he is *held without bail* (not *thrown into jail*). Then the jury *finds for the people*, and the man thus convicted is *sent up*, or *gets ten years;* and when he is released from prison, he is referred to as having *done time.* For a capital offense even *execution* is possible. The criminal may *get the chair.* An old euphemism for *the gallows* was *to stretch hemp.*

Nobody is ever *crazy* any more. That strong old word is now obsolete except in the slang of youth. A girl may be *crazy* about a boy or a new scarf or bonnet, but *unsoundness of mind* is not implied in this old word, which once literally meant *cracked.* Euphemism is one of the regular devices used in creating slang. Hyperbole is another. In one case such as *jug, cooler,* and *city hotel* for *jail* we have the " fair " word as slang. In *vamp* (*a blood sucking evil spirit*), we have a strong word used to characterize *a bewitching girl. Bewitching* is of the same kind. *Stunning* is hyperbolic slang when used to describe a new cravat.

There seems to be a natural tendency to avoid directly naming anything that has to do with death, anything that is distinctly unpleasant, any misfortune or disease, or to call by a direct name the deity or an evil spirit. This seems to be a remnant in civilization of the taboo of savages, a superstition that calling the name will bring the thing down upon one. Even in profanity many substitutes for holy names are used. Even the mild exclamation *mercy!* is one of them; and all the *darn's, dum's, hang's, consarn's,* and *blame's* are just substitutes for *damn;* and *damn* itself is only an imprecation with *God* omitted.

Besides the euphemisms that are old taboos, there is a large class of words used merely to avoid the appearance of coarseness. *Expectorate* is substituted for *spit; perspire* (frequently mispronounced *prespire*) for *sweat; linen* or *lingerie* for *clothes worn next to the body; hose* for *socks* or *stockings; skirt* (from the Norse for *shirt*) for *petticoat* (*little coat*) ; *blouse* (*workman's smock*) for *bodice;*

misconduct, or *slip*, or *lapse* for *immoral conduct*. Even *immoral* was once euphemistic. Literally it means *not in accord with the accepted manner*.

This word illustrates a regular tendency of euphemism to attach a specific meaning to a word or to cause a degeneration in meaning. *Immoral* should have meant no more than " conduct different from the manner of a given time or community," but it has attached itself to unacceptable conduct mainly with reference to sex, and, having taken on that as one of its meanings, it cannot be used without grave offence in referring to any other kind of informal (not in the accepted form) conduct. A similar attitude has been taken relative to *disease* (*lack of ease*), *asylum* (*a sanctuary* or *place of refuge*), *hospital* (*a place to shelter and entertain travelers*), and *insane* (*not sound*).

Hyperbole. — Hyperbole is exaggeration usually for the sake of emphasis or humor. It is one of the commonest patterns for the creation of slang. A girl confides to her friend that she is engaged to be married. The friend is *amazed* (*lost in a maze*), *stupefied* (*thrown in a stupor*), *petrified* (*turned into a stone*), *dumbfounded*. (*Dumbfounded* is *dumb* plus *confounded*. *Confounded* is *poured together*. Then *dumbfounded* is *melted* and *fused* and *unable to speak*.) Or she may be *paralyzed* at the news. All this is over-emphasis. Scenery is *delightful*, *lovely*, *splendid*, *glorious*, *superb*, *grand*, *gorgeous*, *sublime*, *entrancing*, *heavenly*, *divine*, or *stupendous*. With the aid of the dictionary you may analyze each of those words. You will see over-emphasis again. The exaggeration may lead in the opposite direction. A play

does not quite come up to one's expectations. One is slightly *bored* (*afflicted with ennui*), but *bored* is not the word to be used. One is *bored to extinction.* The play was *miserable, outrageous, atrocious, horrid, awful, dreadful, rotten.* The play of last week was by contrast *ravishingly beautiful, superlatively fine,* or *awfully sweet.* Agreement is expressed not by *yes,* and dissent by *no;* but *yes indeed, perfectly true, absolutely, no indeed, never, not at all, by no means,* and *absolutely not* are used. Even then we have avoided the slang equivalents to *yes,* such as *yea bo, oh boy, I'll say so,* and *I'll tell the world,* and the slang negatives, *never,* and *forget it.*

Both euphemism and hyperbole have a legitimate place in language. Objection has been made to the employment of euphemism on the ground that it is not frank and direct, that a spade is not called a spade. Objection has been made to hyperbole on the ground that the expression is out of proportion to the thing, and must be discounted. To the objections to euphemism one may reply that there is no need for the invariable plain word. We have created several terms for a single thing just that we may have a choice between the bald, direct word and the milder, less offensive one. One should be able to command the kind of word that one wants at a given time. If a departure from the truth is an unintentional inexactness of statement, one should be able to command such a word as *error* to describe it; but if it is an intentional untruth, spoken knowingly and maliciously with intent to deceive and do an injury, the " short and ugly word " should be used. There is a danger of becoming prudish through constant euphemistic expression, a

danger of forgetting that *leg*, *drunk*, *dirty*, *immoral*, *bedbug*, *louse*, *naked*, *dead*, *sick*, *undershirt*, and *thief*, not to mention other strong and just as necessary words, are a legitimate and very useful part of the English vocabulary.

Hyperbole is justified on the ground that the purpose of language is accurately to convey to others one's intention, one's thoughts, or one's feelings. Commenting upon Niagara or the Grand Canyon or Pike's Peak as *quite extensive*, *very deep*, or a *high mountain* is speaking literal truth, but not expressing one's feeling in any way about these magnificent creations of nature. Hyperbole may justly be employed in such a situation. One may express in exaggerated terms one's appreciation of a courtesy. By doing so he conveys, not a false impression, but a true one; for he is understood to mean what he feels, not what the words literally mean. Some one lends you a book that you could get the use of at a subscription library for ten cents. You return the book after reading it and are *very grateful* for the use of it; your friend was *exceedingly kind* to lend it. He understands what you mean much better than he would if you had returned the book thanking him for saving you the expense and trouble of renting it at the library.

But like slang, hyperbole has its peril. One who gets the habit can never rightly understand the feeling or even the plain meaning of those who are accustomed to express their meanings, their disgusts, their enthusiasms, or their emotions in more sober terms. Learn to use both euphemism and hyperbole in good taste and with careful discrimination. Avoid letting either practice become a habit.

Metaphor. — The figure of speech that makes the largest contribution toward change of meaning in words is the metaphor. A metaphor is a figure of speech by which a word or phrase literally denoting one kind of object or idea is carried over so as to apply to another by suggesting a likeness or analogy between them. The metaphor is not essentially different from the simile except that it is more compact, suggesting the likeness indirectly rather than by a direct comparison. The use of metaphor is essentially poetic, whether in prose or poetry. When one asserts that the ship *plows* the sea, one transfers the action of breaking up ground with a plow to breaking the sea with the prow of a ship. This transfer is an act of the imagination, the essential feature of poetry. Hardly a sentence can be written without the use of metaphor. " The essential feature of poetry " is metaphor. First, *essential* is transferred so as to apply to *feature,* suggesting *face* or *form,* and is then applied to *poetry,* a thing that has no *face* or *external appearance* such as a person has. Carlyle recognized this poetic quality of language when he asked, " What is it all but metaphors, recognized as such, or no longer recognized; still fluid and florid, or now solid grown and colorless? "

The metaphor is such a common figure and so important that it is impossible in a brief chapter or part of a chapter to do it justice. All one can hope to do is by definition and a few striking illustrations to make the student conscious of metaphors in the speech he hears and in the literature he reads; to call attention to the figure as a poetic device used to enrich meanings both in prose and in poetry; and to leave it at that with the

hope that the student, once conscious of the figure of speech, will continue to observe it until he comes to be aware of its value and so familiar with it that he can use it with fine discrimination and good taste in his own speech and writing.

Metaphor is resorted to when we speak of the *key* to a situation, the *head* of the house, the *foot* of a tree, the *foundation* of an argument, the *bosom* of the earth, a *heavy* heart, a *cold* welcome, a *solemn* bell, a *crying* need, one *sweetly solemn* thought, a *bright* melody, to *spurn* (*kick*) a suggestion, to *welcome* the news, to *read* a face, and to reach *the deeps* of the soul. Even in the formation and early application of names themselves we have in many cases long-forgotten metaphors. *Cloak* (L. *cloca*, a *bell*) is applied to a horseman's cloak or a woman's cloak because they are bell-shaped. *Daisy* (the *day's eye*) is applied to the flower because of the resemblance of the flower to the sun and its extended rays. *Columbine* is the name of a flower that looks something like five pigeons (*columbae*) in a cluster. *To eliminate* is *to push over the threshold* (L. *limen, threshold*).

The simile. — Direct comparison is called "simile." A face *like a flower;* waves rolling in *like fine, white wool;* a narrow, high passageway *like a chimney.* These examples show the direct comparison. To refer to the *youthful bloom* on a face, the *spun foam* of the surf, the *murky, narrow ascent* would be indirect transfer, metaphor, implying the same thing. The simile can be created directly or by making compounds with *like*, such as *flower-like, chimney-like, granite-like,* etc. Or condensed similes can be made by the use of the suffixes *-y,*

-like, *-ive*, *-ous*, *-al*, *-ic*, and *-ish*, as in *stony*, *massive*, *monstrous*, *colossal*, *majestic*, *childish*, and *childlike*.

Metonymy. — A third figure of speech brings about a transfer of meaning by a substitution of the material of which a thing is composed for the thing itself, or the instrument, or by substituting the instrument for the thing that it causes. To put it more generally, metonymy designates a thing not by its own name but by the name of something that it suggests. *Irons* for *fetters*, *glass* for *barometer*, *linen* for *napkins* and *tablecloth*, the *impending horror*, for something likely to cause a feeling of horror, and the *bright death* for the *keen dagger*.

Synecdoche. — The final figure of speech in this series of three pairs is quite similar to metonymy, and serves the same purpose. These two do not so much give variety to the meanings of words or multiply meanings or transfer meanings by calling forth poetic imagination; rather, they bring about by a turn of words the quick visualization of the meaning in a new setting. Synecdoche is the figure that uses the name of a part for the whole, or the genus for the species. *Fifty sail* means *fifty ships; the chair rules* means *the man in the chair rules*. Synecdoche is also seen in *cutthroat* for *assassin* in general, and in *submitting to the knife* for *undergoing a surgical operation*.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

The study of words may be carried to any length, the only limit being the time at the student's disposal. In the present study, as many chapters have been devoted to this phase of the subject as

the needs of the discussion seem to warrant. One is constantly aware that for the teacher's specific equipment this part of the book is only preparation. The specific teaching material, treated with the teacher's margin above and beyond what the pupils are to know, must occupy the greater part of the book. There are, however, still a number of aspects of the study of words that are of value and of interest, and these may be assigned to individual students for readings and reports. The following are suggested:

1. Fossil Words.
   GREENOUGH, J. B., and KITTREDGE, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, Chapter XV.
2. Words and Archeology.
   MCKNIGHT, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, Chapter XXI.
3. Words and Romance.
   MCKNIGHT, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, Chapter XXIII.
4. Words and Culture History.
   MCKNIGHT, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, Chapter XXII.
5. Place and Personal Names.
   GREENOUGH, J. B., and KITTREDGE, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, Chapter XXVI.
   MCKNIGHT, G. H. — *English Words and Their Background*, Chapters XXIV and XXV.
   MENCKEN, H. L. — *The American Language*, pp. 329–368.
   WEEKLEY, E. — *The Romance of Names*, Chapters XII and XIII.

CHAPTER XI

The Use of the Dictionary

The dictionary the teacher's ally. — If an English teacher should find it necessary to limit his library to a single volume and should look the world over to find the one book that contains within its covers the information most necessary to him in his teaching, he should settle his choice upon an unabridged dictionary; for in such a volume he would find the results of scholarly study in the recorded spelling, pronunciation, history, and uses of the words with which he is to deal as a teacher. As a concrete illustration of what information may be obtained from a dictionary let us examine the treatment of a single word. Take the word *impersonal*. In *The New International Dictionary* it is treated as follows:

1. It is spelled in bold-face type by syllables thus: **im-per'son-al**. The syllables are separated by short hyphens (-) except where the accent mark (') shows a division of syllables. If the word had been a compound written with a hyphen, the mark used would have been heavier and longer (–), as in **school–teach'er**.

2. The word is spelled phonetically (ĭm-pûr'sŭn-ăl), to show how it is pronounced.

3. The part of speech is indicated by a small *a*, signifying *adjective*.

4. In square brackets the etymology of the word is given thus: [L. *impersonalis; im-* not + *personalis*

personal: cf. F. *impersonnel.* See *personal.*] This, being interpreted, means that the word is derived from the Latin *impersonalis*, consisting of the prefix *im-* meaning *not* and the word *personalis* meaning *personal*, and that it should be compared with the French *impersonnel*, a word apparently with a similar history and meaning. Perhaps one is not yet satisfied with this story of the composition of the word. One may still look up the prefix *im*, the word *person*, and the suffix *al*. We find under *im-* that it is an assimilated form of *in-* (*not*), or of Latin or English *in* (*in*); sometimes of an earlier *em-*. From the meanings it is obvious that it does not mean *in*. One must turn to the prefix *in-* meaning *not* for further information. This (*in-*) is reported to be from Latin *in-*, akin to English *un-*, and is called "an inseparable prefix, or particle, meaning *not, non-, un-; inactive, incapable, inapt. In-* becomes *il-* before *l*, *ir-* before *r*, and *im-* before a labial; before *gn* in Latin it became *i-*." Since *p* in *personal* is a labial we see that the prefix *in-* acted in the usual manner when it became *im-*. The word *person* next calls for attention. It is a noun and pronounced *pûr'sŭn*, or *pûr's'n*. Its Middle English forms were *persoune, persoun, person.* The Old French form was *persone*, and the modern French *personne.* The Latin word was *persona*, meaning a mask used by actors. There are then nine meanings given for the word, ranging from the meaning "a character or a part in a play" through the usual meanings of "a human being" and "the real self" to the meanings in law, grammar, and biology. Nothing is left now but the suffix *-al*, unless one cares to follow through all the

meanings to try to find out how a word meaning *a mask* came to be applied to the *real self*. The suffix *-al* gives us quite a long story. It is pronounced *ăl* and is from the Latin suffix *-alis*, and is used to form adjectives from nouns. It denotes *belonging to, of*, or *pertaining to, having the character of*, or *appropriate to*. Two other meanings are given to explain its use in *rival, animal, avowal, acquittal*, and in *choral*, but since these do not apply to the use of the suffix in *impersonal*, we do not follow them up.

To summarize, then, we find that the dictionary has given the spelling, syllabification, accent, and pronunciation of the word, and the derivation of the prefix, the root word, and the suffix. In addition it has given the part of speech and all the possible meanings. To conclude the treatment, a quotation is given to show how the word is commonly used, and attention is called to its technical use in relation to bookkeeping and logic.

Types of dictionary. — Three types of dictionary are available. First, there is the complete dictionary of many volumes suitable for library reference; then the single-volume unabridged dictionary; and finally the smaller "students'" or "desk" dictionary, made by omitting the unusual words and the rarer uses of the words that are retained, and reducing the treatment of words to a minimum. For ordinary use, where one wishes to know only the spelling, pronunciation, syllabification, part of speech, and ordinary meanings, the smaller book is satisfactory. The cheap compilations called "pocket" dictionaries or "vest-pocket" dictionaries are usually so brief and so hastily put together

as to be unreliable and misleading even as to the facts about pronunciation and meanings. Their principal difficulty lies in the fact that meanings are expressed by synonyms. It is next to impossible to find two words that mean exactly the same. Whenever the maker of a dictionary finds that the limits of its space compel the omission of all descriptive definitions, of all illustration by example and quotation, he will find himself driven to use approximations to synonyms for definitions; as, "*Corn*, a grain, maize"; "*Fever*, heat, temperature," etc.

The Oxford English Dictionary. — In 1857 the English Philological Society passed a resolution proposing that materials be collected for a new English dictionary. From that time forward a mass of material was gathered by many readers working without remuneration and making notes on what they learned about words. It was not until the year 1879 that organized work was actually begun on the specific preparation of the vocabularies. The first volume was issued in 1888 and from time to time during the thirty-eight years that have elapsed since, other volumes have been issued as progress has been made. A volume that was published in 1919 carried the work through *Su* to *Th*. The final volume was published in 1925. The sixty-nine years since the resolution that started the collecting of material, the forty-seven years since the formal preparation of the work was begun, have at last seen its completion. It has been an immense task, carried on at Oxford under the leadership, for forty-five years, of Sir James A. H. Murray as general editor, with assistance on the later volumes by

Dr. Henry Bradley and Dr. W. A. Craigie. The distinctive feature in this monumental work is the search that has been made to find the early uses of a word so as to trace the meanings assigned to it from its earliest known use down to the present. Dated quotations are given to show as fully as possible, in relation to each given meaning of a word, the earliest period of its use and so to exhibit the evolution of the meaning of the word through the time of its development.

In the Funk and Wagnalls *Standard Dictionary* and in *Webster's New International Dictionary* the word *steward* has about four inches of space in one column. In the *Oxford New English Dictionary*, discussion of the same word occupies five long columns. This treatment is fuller than anyone but a scholar interested in research would need. The Oxford dictionary is not made for popular use, but it should be included as a part of the necessary reference equipment in every important library.

Two abridgements of this work have been made for more common use. These are the *Concise Oxford Dictionary*, 1914, and the *Authors' and Printers' Dictionary*, 1912, each in a single octavo volume giving about as much information as is ordinarily wanted by a student or teacher working at home.

Dictionaries for American students and teachers. — The most extensive dictionary published in America and, before the practical completion of the Oxford publication, the most extensive English dictionary ever published is *The Century Dictionary*, edited by William Dwight Whitney and published first in six volumes and then in ten with the addition later of two supplementary volumes.

Two of the twelve volumes in the final set are a cyclopedia of proper names and an atlas. Two one-volume unabridged dictionaries are in extensive use in libraries and in general in the United States. These are *Webster's New International Dictionary*, and Funk and Wagnalls' *Standard Dictionary*, each treating about 450,000 terms, as does the great Oxford publication. The recent custom of printing large books on India paper has made it possible to produce an unabridged dictionary in a single volume of a size and weight convenient for desk use. This change in form has made the abridged desk dictionary unnecessary so far as bulk is concerned; but many students prefer to use the smaller dictionary on account of the conciseness of statement and the omission of rare and, to them, useless words. Very satisfactory abridgements are available in the *Collegiate Dictionary* and the *Academic Dictionary* of the Webster series and the *Practical Standard Dictionary* of Funk and Wagnalls.

The form of the dictionary. — Only a few students observe the form of a page of the dictionary. Just as many persons are unable to recall from memory whether the six on their watch dials is right side up or upside down, so many students who see a page of an unabridged dictionary almost daily cannot remember whether it has two, three, or four columns. The page has been very carefully planned for the convenience of the dictionary user. The pages of the *Oxford*, *Century*, *New International*, and *Standard* all have three columns. If the page were printed in two columns the lines of the necessarily small type would be too long to follow easily and con-

secutively. Nor do many students notice whether there is a word at the head of each column or only at the head of the first, or of the first and third. The usual form is to have the first word on the page printed in capitals at the head of the first column and the last word on the page at the head of the third column, so that at a glance the reader may see that the word he is looking for does not lie between the first word and the last on that page. For example, one is looking for the word *expository*. He opens the book as near the page as he can by using the index guides. At the head of the page on the left he sees the words *expertise* and *explore*. *Expository* does not lie between those two. The next page shows *explore* and *express*. The word he seeks will be on that page.

A variation from that form is used by the *Standard*. As the book lies open, two pages of three columns each lie before the reader. At the head of the first column two words in large bold-faced type appear one above the other. These same words also appear at the head of the sixth column. The upper word is the first word treated on the pair of pages and the lower is the last, so that at a glance at the outer column on either page one may see the limits of the two pages.

The index guides. — One of the newer time-saving and book-saving devices is the index guide. As the thick book lies closed, you see printed near the right edge of the binding from top to bottom the alphabet from A to M in capitals. Turning the book over so that the back lies at your right hand you will see the letters down the front edge of that side from N to Z. Without stopping to look for the index cuts you may run your thumb across

the front of the book below the letter T, insert it into the first cut it touches, and open the book at the beginning of the T's. Or when the book lies open you may do the same thing. For example, my dictionary now lies open at the EXPLORE — EXPRESS page. Beginning about halfway down the page and extending to the bottom in a column along the right-hand margin are the letters from F to M, each over the index cut for which it stands. So again I may find the place without having to hunt for it except along the front edge of the book.

The rare words in an obscure place on the page. — To save space and the reader's time, the *International* has adopted the plan of printing the commoner words and the more important words in the usual type and in the three columns of the page. But rare words and infrequently used derivatives are printed in smaller type in a portion of the page at the bottom. This part of the page has six narrow columns. The treatment of these words is also much briefer than that of the more common words. On the EXPLORE — EXPRESS page only an inch at the bottom is reserved for the six-column arrangement. But on the KAFIRI — KAMACITE page nearly a half of the page is so used. This arrangement saves much space and probably reduces the bulk of the volume as much as one tenth, which means a saving of approximately two hundred and fifty to three hundred pages in the book.

Devices to guide in pronunciation. — The makers of dictionaries know as well as the students of phonetics that it is impossible to represent in print every shade of difference in pronunciation no matter how ingenious the

marking system may be. In the earlier dictionaries, Dr. Johnson's, for example, no attempt except the marking of accent was made to show how the words were pronounced. Even the *Concise Oxford* does not mark every word. The editors rely upon the reader's knowledge that certain combinations of letters always produce certain sounds, and so do not respell for pronunciation. They also rely upon the reader's knowledge of how familiar words are pronounced and do not mark these. Where there seems to be some doubt about pronunciation, they use a set of forms to represent the sounds.

In America we are accustomed to an elaborate set of symbols to represent the sounds and so guide us in the pronunciation of words. Two dictionaries, the *Century* and the *New International,* respell the words and mark this new spelling with a series of diacritical marks. These marks have been so much used in school books that they are pretty generally understood all over the country. The *Standard* also respells, but uses a different set of phonetic symbols, recommended by many American philologists. The scheme is an excellent one but has the disadvantage of being less known in America than the other system of diacritical marks. The student should become familiar with both kinds of marks. These may be seen in full in the introductory pages of the dictionaries already mentioned.

A dictionary more than a word-book. — In recent years it has become the custom to put into the new editions of the unabridged dictionaries a good deal of material that was once the peculiar property of the encyclopedias. For a time this material was kept apart

from the regular word list. The *Century* called itself a dictionary and cyclopedia. Others have followed its example and have included encyclopedic information in the main body of the book in the word columns. On a single page of one of the new dictionaries, short articles appear under the proper names, *Kinmont Willie*, *Kimerley's Thermometer*, *Kipchack*, *Kirchhoff's Law*, and *Kirghiz*. This volume also contains a section that is a pronouncing gazetteer and another that supplies a pronouncing biographical list.

It is also the custom to include in these dictionaries a great deal of authoritative and valuable information about the history of the language and the customs which guide in its use.

The etymological dictionaries. — Two dictionaries in general use deal with the etymologies of words alone. For the student who wishes to " look up " a word in the general sense these will not serve. They are prepared for the use of scholars who are interested in word origins and derivations. These books are *An Etymological Dictionary of the English Language*, Fourth Edition, 1910, by Professor W. W. Skeat of Oxford University, and *An Etymological Dictionary of Modern English*, London, 1921, by Professor Ernest Weekley. The latter covers much the same ground as the former, but in the treatment of the words uses frequent quotations to illustrate use and meaning. Skeat's dictionary does not use quotations; but, in addition to its study of the words, it has a valuable list of prefixes and suffixes, a complete list of English homonyms, a list of Indo-European roots, and, most valuable of all to the ordinary

student, a section in which the words of the dictionary are grouped according to the languages from which they come.

A dictionary test. — An interesting and valuable exercise in connection with dictionary study is a test in the use of the dictionary. The only test at present available is that of Dr. Thomas H. Briggs, published in the *Teachers College Record*, September, 1923. This test is based upon *Webster's Secondary-School Dictionary*.

The purpose of this chapter. — The greater part of this chapter is commonplace. It supplies such knowledge as every high school student should have. However, the author's experience with college students has shown clearly that rather few people make the common observations that would give them the information here set forth. On that account it seems better to assume too little knowledge on the student's part rather than to assume too much and so to leave unsaid some things that may be valuable as a part of a teacher's equipment in English. Knowing what is in the dictionary is to the teacher what knowing the contents of his tool chest is to the carpenter. Knowing how to find and use this material accurately and skillfully is knowing where to find and how to use the tools of his trade.

CHAPTER XII

Prefixes

Separable and inseparable prefixes. — A word or a syllable attached at the beginning of another word so as to change its meaning is called a *prefix*. *Conduct* is made of the syllable *con* (equivalent to *com* or the Latin *cum*, meaning *with*) and *duct* (from the Latin *duco* — *to lead*). The whole meaning therefore is *to lead with, to act as guide*, or *to lead with oneself*. The syllable *con* has no meaning as a word standing alone. It cannot be separated from the syllable *duct*, which carries the meaning. On this account it is called an inseparable prefix. The word *outlive* is made of two syllables *out* and *live*. Each of these standing alone has a word meaning. On this account *out* is called a " separable " prefix. The word *prefix* itself is a good illustration of the making of a word by this kind of composition. The syllable *pre* means before. It is an " inseparable " prefix. The second syllable is from the Latin *figere* — *to fix*. The combination *prae* plus *figere* becomes *pre-fix* — *to fix before* or *to fasten before*.

Roots. — In an earlier chapter the word *root* was used to indicate the simplest element of a word that could exist alone, such as *ag*, *ped*, and *ar*. And it was assumed that these simple elements of word-stuff were either complete primitive words or the worn-down fossils of primitive

words, no longer used as words. In this chapter we wish to use the word *root* in a different sense; that is, to mean the original form, stripped of prefix and suffix, from which a word was made. For example, the root of *prefix* is the Latin syllable *fig*, which is *figere* stripped of the inflectional ending *ere*. We shall find that there is a comparatively small group of Latin, Greek, and Anglo-Saxon root words about which by the use of prefixes and suffixes many modern English words have been built. The Latin word *duco*, for example, is the base upon which are built the words *educate, education, educable, conduct, conduce, conductor, conducive, conduction, induce, induction, produce, producer, production, product, viaduct, educe, eduction, deduce, deduction, traduce, traducer, seduce, seductive, seduction,* and *abduct,* to mention only a few of the possible words that have been made on that base or root. Whenever the word *root* is used in these chapters dealing with the composition of words it is to be understood in this sense and not in the other, more limited, technical sense of the philologists.

Euphonic changes. — In making up words by using a root and a prefix it is not always possible to attach the prefix in its regular form to the root that gives meaning to the new word. For example, there are many words built on the Latin word *dictare* or some other of its principal parts. If we wish to attach *ad* to *dict* we find that the combination can easily be made. The same is true with *in*. We have *addict* and *indict*. But the prefix *ad* will not combine with *tend*. The speech organs will not make the *d* and *t* of *adtend* in close succession. Those two sounds require different placings of the tip of the

tongue, which cannot be made in speech without a pause between. In that case *at* is substituted for *ad*. In a similar way the *d* of *ad* becomes the "double" of the first letter of roots beginning with *c*, *g*, *p*, *s*, *l*, *n*, *f*, and *r*, as in *accede*, *aggrieve*, *approve*, *assent*, *ally*, *annex*, *affix*, and *arrest*. Similarly *dis* becomes *dif* before a root beginning with *f*, as in *different;* or it may be shortened to *di*, as in *digest*. The prefix *e* or *ex*, meaning *from*, becomes *ef* before a root beginning with *f* (*efface*); and *in* (meaning *in*, *into*, or *not*) changes the *n* to *m* before *p*, as in *import;* or the *n* becomes the double of the first letter of roots beginning with *l*, *m*, and *r*, as in *illiterate*, *immoral*, and *irregular*. *Com* (Latin *cum*) becomes *con* before *c*, *d*, *g*, *j*, *n*, *q*, *s*, *t*, and *v*. We have *compress* and *command*, but *concur*, *conduct*, *congeal*, *conjoin*, *connect*, *conquer*, *construct*, *contend*, *convey*, etc. *Sub* (*under*) and *ob* (*against*, or *in front of*) change the *b* to match the first letter of roots beginning with *c*, *f*, *g*, *p*, and *r*, as in *succeed*, *suffuse*, *suggest*, *suppress*, *surrender*, etc.

There is nothing arbitrary or mysterious about these euphonic changes. The letters of the prefixes are changed so as to make it possible to say the words easily. The student should not try to memorize the consonants before which the changes for the several prefixes occur. The important thing is to remember that *suggest* is *subgest*, that the prefix in *concur* is *com* or *cum*, in *digest* is *dis*, in *accede* is *ad*, etc., merely changed in form to make pronunciation easy, but each retaining the general meaning of the original prefix. Keeping in mind what the prefix is and what the root is will also be a guide in the

spelling of words. *Missent* will never be spelled with one *s* by anyone who sees *mis* as the prefix and *sent* as the base of the word. The same will apply to *attend, illustrate, immigrant, surrender,* and all similarly constructed words.

The principal Greek and Latin roots used in English. — To try to list all the Latin, Greek, and Anglo-Saxon words from which English words are built up by the use of prefixes and suffixes would be unprofitable. When the student wishes to find out what the foundation of a given word is, he should consult an unabridged dictionary. There are, however, a few Latin and Greek words that occur so frequently, and upon which so many English words are built, that it is worth while to list them. Seven Greek roots are—

auto-	from *autos* (*himself*) as in *automatic.*
chron-	from *chronos* (*time*) as in *chronometer.*
graph-	from *graphein* (*to write*) as in *multigraph.*
log-	from *logos* (*a word*) as in *geology.*
metr-	from *metron* (*a measure*) as in *metrical.*
nom-	from *nomos* (*law*) as in *metronome.*
philo-	from *philos* (*loving*) as in *philosopher.* *Philo* (*loving*) plus *sophos* (*wisdom*).

Fifty-eight Latin words, from which, by change of form or by using the root with prefixes or suffixes or in compounds with other roots, many of our English words are formed, are—

amare	*to love,* as in *amiable*
audire	*to hear,* as in *audible*
capere	*to take,* as in *capture*
cedere	*to go* or *to move,* as in *recede*
cidere	*to kill,* as in *insecticide*

clamare	*to call out*, as in *acclaim*
clarare	*to make clear*, as in *clarify*
complere	*to fill*, as in *complete*
cor	*heart*, as in *cordial* and *accord*
credere	*to believe*, as in *incredible*
damnare	*to condemn*, as in *indemnity* and *damnation*
ducere	*to lead*, as in *induct* and *produce*
edere	*to eat*, as in *edible*
facere	*to make*, as in *perfect* and *manufacture*
ferre	*to bear*, as in *ferry* and *transfer*
fidere	*to trust*, as in *confide*
figere	*to join*, as in *suffix* and *fixation*
flectare	*to bend*, as in *inflexible*
fligere	*to strike*, as in *inflict*
fortuna	*fortune*, as in *unfortunate*
gradi	*to walk*, as in *transgression*
habere	*to have*, as in *inhabit* and *inhibit*
jacere	*to throw*, as in *inject* and *project*
jungere	*to join*, as in *subjunctive*
liber	*a book*, as in *library*
liberus	*free*, as in *liberty* and *liberal*
litera	*a letter*, as in *illiteracy*
lumen	*a light*, as in *illuminate*
magnus	*great* or *large*, as in *magnify*
malus	*bad*, as in *malady* and *malformation*
mandare	*to command*, as in *commendable*
manus	*hand*, as in *manual* and *manuscript*
medius	*middle*, as in *medial* and *immediately*
memorare	*to bring to mind*, as in *commemorate*
mittere	*to send*, as in *commit* and *permit*
monere	*to advise*, as in *admonish*
monstrare	*to show*, as in *remonstrate*
movere	*to move*, as in *automobile* and *immovable*
nomen	*a name*, as in *nominate* and *pronoun*
orare	*to speak*, as in *oration*
patria	*country*, as in *unpatriotic*
pellere	*to drive*, as in *impel*

pendere	*to hang,* as in *impending* or *pendant*
ponere	*to place,* as in *deposit* and *propose*
portare	*to carry,* as in *portable*
posse	*to be able,* as in *impossible*
regere	*to rule,* as in *irregular*
rumpere	*to break,* as in *interrupt*
scribere	*to write,* as in *inscription*
serere	(*sert*) *to claim,* as in *assert*
similis	*like,* as in *similar*
spirare	*to breathe,* as in *inspiration* and *transpire*
stare	*to stand,* as in *static* and *station*
struere	*to build* or *set in order,* as in *construction*
tangere	*to touch,* as in *tangible*
tenere	*to hold,* as in *unattainable*
uti	*to use,* as in *useful* and *utilitarian*
venire	*to come,* as in *convenient* [1]

Anglo-Saxon basic words in English. — The printing of a long list of Latin words, which with their prefixes and suffixes form a substantial part of the English language, may lead to the false impression that the language is basically Latin and that to understand it the English student must be proficient in Latin. For many years that was actually the attitude of English and American teachers. Latin was the basic study of all the schools of Europe during the Middle Ages because it was the language of educated men. All the manuscripts were in Latin. If one were to read at all he must read Latin. But long after Latin ceased to be the universal language of learned men, English teachers insisted upon its study in the schools as a means of coming to know English,

[1] A longer list consisting of some three hundred of the Greek and Latin words appearing in common use as the foundation of English words may be found in Lewis and Holmes's *Knowing and Using Words,* pp. 112–118.

since English contained such a large proportion of Latin. A well directed study of Latin does serve to give one a knowledge of an important part of the English language, but the study of Latin cannot be justified on that ground alone. A careful study of the Latin words common in English together with the Latin prefixes and suffixes would perhaps give a student a better grasp of the Latin in English than the usual four years of high school Latin does in actual practice.

The basis of English is Old English. We must not forget that. Nearly all of our most common and most necessary nouns, adjectives, and verbs are Anglo-Saxon (Teutonic), as are the articles *a, an,* and *the;* the numerals (except *second*); the pronouns, prepositions, and conjunctions; and the auxiliary verbs. In fact the whole foundation of English grammar is Anglo-Saxon and not Latin or Greek. The following list of common words will serve to suggest how large a proportion of the words in common colloquial speech is Anglo-Saxon.

Names of common animals; as —

ape	dove	hare	man	throstle
bear	fish	hawk	owl	turtle
bee	foal	horse	ox	weevil
beetle	fowl	hound	pig	worm
bird	fox	lamb	raven	
deer	goose	lark	sheep	

Terms for common qualities and actions; as —

bold	high	ask	buy	find
blind	low	hear	chaffer	fly
bright	holy	bid	chew	get

broad	hot	bind	come	give
cold	old	bite	dip	go
dark	quick	blaze	do	have
dead	rough	bleach	drink	kill
deaf	sick	blow	eat	love
good	smooth	bring	fear	look
hard	pretty	burn	fill	make

Names of common things; as —

awl	egg	iron	sea	summer
bank	bridge	lead	silver	sun
book	food	hook	nail	thunder
boat	fire	hat	name	spear
cloud	gun	knife	ship	bow
dale	evening	meat	sword	bill
dawn	flood	light	snow	arrow
day	ground	moon	spring	water
dew	heat	morning	star	wind
earth	hill	night	stone	world
east	ice	rain	stream	winter

Words relating to the family, household, and farm; as —

brother	bath	door	chaff	wheat
child	beam	dough	corn	ash
daughter	bed	home	cow	beech
father	bolster	hearth	delve	berry
friend	bosom	kettle	harvest	brick
husband	bread	barn	hay	fir
kin	brew	loaf	hemp	grass
mother	broth	oven	honey	oak
sister	cloth	roof	milk	oats
wife	comb	thatch	plow	tree
widow	cook	barley	rake	
bake	cradle	calf	scythe	

The names of most of the parts of the body; as —

beard	brain	ear	foot	heel
body	breast	eye	hair	knee
bone	breath	finger	hand	leg
bosom	brow	fist	heart	lip
blood	chin	flesh	head	mouth

The Latin prefixes. — Latin prefixes commonly used in English are —

1. *a*, *ab*, or *abs*, meaning *away from*. Before *v* and *m* the *a* form is used, as in *a/vert* and *a/mend*. Before *c* and *t* the *abs* form occurs, as in *abs/cond*, and *abs/tract*. Otherwise the form is *ab*, as in *ab/rupt* and *ab/breviate*.
2. *ad*, meaning *to* or *toward*. Euphonic changes already explained give the forms *ac*, *af*, *ag*, *al*, *an*, *ap*, *as*, and *at*, all meaning the same as *ad*, as in *ad/dress*, *ac/cept*, *af/firm*, *as/sent*, and *at/tempt*.
3. *ante*, meaning *before*, as in *ante/date*. In *anti/cipate* it is spelled with *i*. The Greek *anti* means against. The variation from the Latin *ante* must not be confused with the Greek prefix.
4. *bene*, meaning *well*, as it occurs in *bene/fit*, *bene/faction*, *bene/fice*.
5. *bi-* meaning *two*, *twice*, or *double*, as in *bi/valve*, *bi/carbonate*, *bi/sect*. *Bis-* is sometimes used instead of *bi* before *c*, as in *bis/cuit*.
6. *circum*, meaning *around*, as in *circum/stances*, *circum/ference*, and *circum/spect*.
7. *con-* (from Latin *cum*), meaning *with*. Its changes to *col-*, and *cor-* have already been alluded to. Before vowels it usually appears as *co-*. Examples: *con/trast* *col/lect*, *cor/rect*, and *co/operate*.
8. *contra*, meaning *against*, as in *contra/dict*, and *contra/st* (*contra* + *stare* — *to stand opposite*).
9. *de*, meaning *down from*, or *away*, as in *de/rive*, *de/jected*, and *de/part*.
10. *dis-*, meaning *apart*, as in *dis/abuse*, *dis/sent*, *dif/fuse*, and *di/gress*.

11. *e* or *ex*, meaning *out from*, as in *e/lude*, *ex/clude*, *e/mit*, and *ex/press*.
12. *extra*, meaning *outside* or *beyond*, as in *extra/vagant*, and *extra/ordinary*.
13. *in*, a preposition meaning *in* or *into*. Before *b*, *m*, or *f* it appears as *im*. Before *l* it is *il*. Before *r* it is *ir*. Examples: *in/vent*, *im/pulse*, *im/bue*, *im/migrate*, *il/luminate*, *ir/radiate*.
14. *in-*, a prefix meaning *not*. This *in-* is entirely different in meaning from the preposition *in*, but takes the same forms before the letters *b*, *m*, *f*, *l*, and *r* as the other. Examples : *in/superable*, *in/adequate*, *im/possible*, *il/limitable*, *ir/rational*.
15. *inter*, meaning *between* or *among*, as in *inter/vene* and *inter/rupt*. But notice that such words as *inter/play*, and *inter/weave* are made up of a Latin prefix with an Old English word. Such combinations are called "hybrids." They are not approved by linguistic purists but are in regular good use in spite of the objection.
16. *intra or intro-*, meaning *within*, as in *intra-mural* and *intro/duce*.
17. *non*, meaning *not*, as in *non/conformist* and *non/support*.
18. *ob*, meaning *against*. This prefix also takes the forms *oc*, *of*, and *op* by assimilation. Examples : *ob/solete*, *oc/cupy*, *of/fend*, and *op/press*.
19. *per*, meaning *through*, as in *per/meate*, *per/ennial*, and *per/jury*.
20. *post*, meaning *after*, as in *post/pone* and *post/script*.
21. *prae* (*pre*), meaning *before*, as in *pre/mature* and *pre/paration*.
22. *pro* meaning *in front of* or *in behalf of*, and so finally *favorable to*, as in *pro/duce* and *pro/gress*.
23. *quadri-*, *quadru-*, or *quadr-*, meaning *four*, as in *quadru/ped* and *quadri/lateral*.
24. *re-*, or *red-*, meaning *back* or *again*, as in *re/direct*, *re/arrange*, and *red/olent*.
25. *retro*, meaning *back*, or *backwards*, as in *retro/grade*.
26. *se-*, meaning *from*, or *apart from*, as in *se/parate*, *se/cede*, and *se/cure*.
27. *semi-*, meaning *half*, as in *semi/circle*, *semi/conscious*, and *semi/chorus*.
28. *sub*, meaning *under*. In combinations by euphonic change this syllable becomes *suc-*, *suf-*, *sug-*, *sum-*, *sup-*, *sur-*, or *sus-*, as in

sub/servient, *suc/cessor*, *suf/ficient*, *sug/gestion*, *sum/mon*, *sup/press*, *sur/round*, and *sus/pense*.

29. *super*, meaning *over*, as in *super/heated* and *super/natural*.
30. *trans*, meaning *across* or *on the other side of*, as in *trans/mit*.
31. *tri*, meaning *three*, as in *tri/pod*, *tri/angle*, and *tri/meter*.

The Greek prefixes. — Greek prefixes commonly used in English words are —

1. *a-*, or *an-*, meaning *not* or *without*, as in *a/byss* (*without bottom*) and *an/archy* (*without government*). The *a-* should not be confused with the Latin preposition *a* or *ab*, meaning *from*.
2. *amphi*, meaning *around*, as in *amphi/theater*, and scientific terms such as *amphi/bious*, and *amphi/blastic*.
3. *ana*, meaning *back*, as in *ana/chronism*.
4. *anti*, or *ant-*, meaning *opposed to* or *against*, as in *anti/thesis* and *ant/agonist*.
5. *apo*, meaning *away*, as in *apo/logy* and *apo/plexy*.
6. *cata*, meaning *down* or *against*, as in *cata/log*, *cata/lepsy*, and *cata/strophe*.
7. *dia*, meaning *through*, as in *dia/meter*, and *dia/log*.
8. *di-*, meaning *twice* or *two*, as *di/phthong* and *di/graph*.
9. *dys-*, meaning *ill* or *bad*, as in *dys/entery*, and *dys/pepsia*.
10. *ec* or *ex*, meaning *from* or *out of* like the Latin *ex*. Examples : *ec/lectic* and *ex/odus*.
11. *en*, or *em-*, meaning *in* or *on*, as in *en/thusiasm*, and *em/bargo*.
12. *epi* or *ep-*, meaning *upon*, as in *epi/dermis*, *epi/gram*, and *e/pode*.
13. *eu* or *ev-*, meaning *well*, as in *eu/logy* and *ev/angelist*.
14. *hemi*, the same as Latin *semi*, meaning *half*, as in *hemi/sphere*, *hemi/ptera*.
15. *hyper*, meaning *above*, as in *hyper/sensitive*, and *hyper/trophy*.
16. *hypo*, meaning *under*, as in *hypo/thesis* and *hypo/dermic*.
17. *meta*, meaning *after*, as in *meta/phor* (an after meaning, a changed meaning, hence a transferred meaning), and in *meta/morphic*.
18. *para*, or *par*, meaning *beside*, as in *para/graph*, *para/dox*, and *par/enthesis*.
19. *peri*, meaning *around*, as in *peri/od* and *peri/meter*.
20. *syn*, *syl-*, *sym-*, meaning *together*, *with*, as in *syn/thesis*, *syl/lable*, *sym/metry*, and *sys/tem*.

The English prefixes. — From the Anglo-Saxon and modern English we have twelve prefixes used in the composition of words.

1. *a-*, the remnant of the Anglo-Saxon preposition *an*, meaning *on, to, toward, into*, or *up*, as in *a/foot, a/back, a/broad.* As a preposition it is still heard in the colloquial *a/fishing, a/hunting*, etc., equivalent to the preposition and noun *on-fishing, on-hunting*, etc.
2. *be-*, meaning *thoroughly* or *all over*, as in *be/smirched, be/daub, be/head*, and *be/friend.*
3. *by-*, meaning *beside* or *incidental*, as in *by/path, by/product*, and *by/stander.*
4. *for-*, in many common words, such as *for/give, for/bid, for/get*, and *for/bear.*
5. *fore*, meaning in *front* or *before*, as in *fore/see, fore/warn*, and *fore/tell.*
6. *mis-*, meaning *badly, bad*, or *wrongly*, as in *mis/manage, mis/direct, mis/conduct*, and *mis/demeanor.*
7. *off*, meaning *from*, as in *off/shoot, off/spring*, and *off/set.*
8. *out*, meaning *beyond* or *out* or *better*, as in *out/run, out/do*, and *out/worn.*
9. *over*, meaning *in excess of*, or *too much*, as in *over/bearing, over/turn, over/charge*, and *over/burden.*
10. *un-*, used to reverse the usual meaning of a word or to mean *not*, as in *un/happy, un/healthy, un/paid* and *un/kind.*
11. *under*, meaning *beneath* or *insufficiently*, as in *under/tow, under/bid, under/paid*, and *under/rated.*
12. *with*, meaning *from* or *against*, as in *with/draw, with/stand*, or *with/hold.*

SUGGESTIONS TO THE TEACHER

A number of lessons in word building and word analysis should be given to teachers in training. The amount of space that can be devoted in this book to the composition of words will not permit the author to outline the lessons, but the English instructors in teachers' colleges have both the knowledge and the skill to enable them to prepare these lessons. For students who have not studied

Latin, the drill on roots, prefixes, and suffixes should be quite extensive. If sufficient time were at the disposal of teacher and student, it would be profitable to spend as much as twelve weeks on word study alone, partially to equip the student with that knowledge of the composition and derivation of words which the old Latin course was supposed to give (and which in most cases it actually failed to give). However, a fair knowledge of this material can be gained through a briefer series of carefully planned lessons.

The author suggests such assignments as a group of words, a few at a time, to be looked up in the dictionary and analyzed into prefix, root, and suffix, the meaning of each part being given, followed by the meaning of the whole after it is put together. This work should be arranged so that the series of lessons will cover the main roots, the principal prefixes, and the principal suffixes. Exercises in building up words should be devised in a similar way. The object of all this is by repetition to build up connections (bonds) between symbols and meanings, to go over the common word stuff so frequently and under such favorable teaching conditions that symbols will come to suggest meanings automatically. For example, a student may be asked to find in the dictionary ten words based on *ferre* and having both prefixes and suffixes. After analyzing these words he will know that *fer* means in some way *to carry*, wherever he sees it.

Another exercise consists in having a given number of words with a given prefix or a given suffix like *trans* or *able* built up. By observing spellings of roots, prefixes, and suffixes the student will also banish many difficulties of spelling.

All of this drill should be in brief assignments at frequent intervals, and the words chosen should be such as promise to keep up interest by revealing unusual or unexpected information as the student reads "short stories in the dictionary." Remember the psychological significance of the Law of Use (frequency), the value of study accompanied by satisfaction, and the uselessness of study accompanied by annoyance. The teacher who is at a loss in making up drill lessons will get valuable suggestions from Lewis and Holmes's, *Knowing and Using Words*, pages 23–26, and Chapters IV to VII inclusive.

CHAPTER XIII

Suffixes

Definition. — A suffix is one syllable or possibly two, but seldom a separable word, attached to the end of a word to modify its meaning.

It is not so easy to find a definite meaning to ascribe to a suffix as it is for a prefix. The suffix often does little more than to change the part of speech of the word to which it is affixed. *Eloquent* is an adjective. The suffix *-ent* gives it that significance. But attach *-ence* to the root of the word, and you have a noun.

Two ways of listing the suffixes present themselves. If one is interested in the *sources* of the words in the English language and how words are made, as to whether they are Latin in prefix, root, and suffix, or Greek throughout, or English throughout, or hybrid, one would prefer to have the suffixes classified as to the languages from which they come. But if one's interest is rather in the grammar of the language and in the shades of meaning contributed by the suffixes, it would seem better to list them, according to the parts of speech they represent, as noun suffixes, adjective suffixes, and so on.

In this volume, our interest is in the use of language. Its history is only background for our purpose. On this account we shall make a partial list of the suffixes under the names of the parts of speech and indicate as

accurately as possible the general meaning that each carries with it. That done, we shall make a separate list of the same suffixes according to their origin.

The noun suffixes. — The noun suffixes are —

1. *-acy*, as in *accuracy — the state of being accurate.*
2. *-age*, as in *pilgrimage — the act of going as a pilgrim.*
3. *-an, -ian*, as in *historian — one who writes history.*
4. *-ance*, as in *repentance — the state of being repentant.*
5. *-ancy*, as in *infancy — the state of being an infant.*
6. *-ant*, as in *servant — one who serves.*
7. *-ard*, as in *wizard, sluggard*, etc. — (no definite meaning).
8. *-ate*, as in *senate, magistrate* — (no definite meaning).
9. *-cle* as in *particle — a small object.*
10. *-cule*, as in *animalcule — a small animal.*
11. *-dom* as in *kingdom — the domain of a king.*
12. *-ee*, as in *employee — one who is employed.*
13. *-eer*, or *-ier*, as in *engineer* or *fancier — one who runs an engine*, or *one who fancies.*
14. *-ence*, as in *violence — a quality of being violent.*
15. *-ency*, as in *presidency — condition of presiding.*
16. *-er*, as in *carpenter — one who works in wood* (originally *one who makes wagons.*)
17. *-hood*, as in *childhood — state of being a child.*
18. *-ion*, as in *suspicion — the act of suspecting.*
19. *-ism*, as in *heroism — state of being a hero.*
20. *-ist*, as in *biologist — one who knows biology.*
21. *-ite*, as in *favorite — one who is favored.*
22. *-ity*, as in *activity — the state of being active.*
23. *-ment*, as in *contentment — the state of being content.*
24. *-mony*, as in *testimony — that which is testified to.*
25. *-ness*, as in *gentleness — the state of being gentle.*
26. *-or*, as in *donor — one who gives.*
27. *-ry, -ary, -ery, -ory*, as in *dentistry, adversary, scenery*, and *observatory.* A meaning can be assigned to each suffix but no general meaning, such as a *place where* or *one who*, will do for all.

28. *-ship*, as in *principalship — the office of principal.*
29. *-ster*, as in *teamster* and *spinster — one who drives a team*, or *one who spins.*
30. *-tude*, as in *magnitude — the quality of being large.*
31. *-ule*, same as *-cle* and *-cule*, as in *globule — a little globe.*

The adjective suffixes. — The adjective suffixes are —

1. *-able*, *-ible*, or *-ble*, as in *amiable, credible, noble — having the quality of amiability, credibility*, or *nobility.*
2. *-acious*, as in *vivacious — full of life.*
3. *-al*, as in *national — pretaining to the nation.*
4. *-ant* or *-ent*, as in *expectant* and *confident — in a state of expectancy* or *confidence.*
5. *-ary*, as in *mercenary — tending to seek reward only.*
6. *-ate*, as in *ornate*, and *temperate — the state of being elaborately adorned* or *not excessive.*
7. *-en*, as in *golden — made of gold.*
8. *-ful*, as in *plentiful — full of plenty.*
9. *-ish*, as in *childish — like a child.*
10. *-ive*, as in *intensive — tending to intensity.*
11. *-less*, as in *harmless.*
12. *-let*, as in *booklet.*
13. *-ly*, as in *daily, heavenly*, etc. — *as each day comes, like heaven.*
14. *-ory*, as in *auditory — pertaining to hearing.*
15. *-ose*, *-ous*, *-ious*, or *-eous*, as in *bellicose — inclined toward war, envious, full of envy; courageous, full of courage.*
16. *-ple*, as in *triple — three-fold.*
17. *-some*, as in *tiresome.*
18. *-y*, as in *stony, milky — indicating full of* or *having the character of.*
19. *-y*, as in *baby, Johnny*, etc., indicating familiarity and affection.

The adverb suffixes. — There are only two adverb suffixes. These are —

1. *-ly*, from the Anglo-Saxon *lice — like*, as *directly, darkly, happily*, etc.
2. *-ward*, from the Anglo-Saxon *weard — in the direction of*, as in *forward, backward, homeward*, etc.

The verb suffixes. — Each of the four verb suffixes signifies *to make*. They are —

1. *-ate*, as in *liquidate, carbonate, compensate, liberate, celebrate.*
2. *-en*, as *gladden, whiten, strengthen.*
3. *-fy*, as in *glorify, satisfy, edify*, and *liquefy.*
4. *-ise*, or *-ize*, as in *realize, criticize, liberalize, fossilize.*

The derivation of the suffixes. — The largest number of the common suffixes are from the Latin language. Of the forty-seven listed on pages 175, 176, and 177, thirty-one are from that source. Of the remaining, five come from the Greek, seventeen from the Anglo-Saxon. The Latin are *-able, -ible* or *-ble* as in *amiable, credible*, and *soluble; -acious* and *-aceous* as in *vivacious* and *cretaceous; -acy* and *-cy* as in *fallacy* and *secrecy; -age* as in *pilgrimage; -al* as in *autumnal; -an, -ane, -ian* as in *human, humane, comedian; -ance, -ancy* as in *assistance* and *infancy; -ant, -ent*, as in *servant* and *confident; -ary* as in *elementary* and *adversary; -ate* as in *temperate* and *magistrate; -cle, -cule*, as in *particle* and *animalcule; -ee* as in *employee; -eer, -ier* as in *engineer* and *financier; -ence, -ency*, as in *violence* and *presidency; -ise* or *ize* as in *compromise* or *realize; -fy*, as in *horrify; -ion* as in *completion; -ism* as in *heroism; -ist* as in *biologist; -ite -it*, as in *favorite* and *exhibit; -ity, -ty* as in *insanity* and *liberty; -ive* as in *progressive; -ment* as in *commandment; -mony* as in *testimony; -or, -tor, -sor* as in *victor, confessor*, and *terror; -ory* as in *victory; -ose, -ous*, as in *bellicose* and *dangerous; -tude* as in *attitude; -ule* as in *globule.*

The following three suffixes are Greek, but they came into English through Latin and are therefore given

in the preceding list as well as here: *ize* and *-ise* as in *realize* and *compromise; -ism* as in *conservatism;* and *-ist* as in *antagonist* and *dentist.*

These fifteen suffixes are Old English (Anglo-Saxon): *-ard* as in *drunkard; -dom* as in *freedom* and *wisdom; -en* as in *woolen* and *shorten; -er* or *-yer* as in *builder, carpenter, sawyer,* and *lawyer; -ful* as in *plentiful, handful,* and *artful; -hood* as in *knighthood* and *priesthood; -ish* as in *brownish, childish,* and *Danish; -less* as in *seamless* and *helpless; -let* as in *booklet* and *streamlet; -ly* as in *shamefully* and *manly; -ness* as in *kindness* and *sweetness; -ship* as in *friendship* and *scholarship; -ster* as in *teamster* and *gamester; -ward* as in *homeward* and *westward;* and *-y* or *-ie* as in *stony, icy,* and *Jimmie.*

The meanings of prefixes and suffixes. — No attempt has been made in these two chapters to go into detail concerning either the original forms of the prefixes and suffixes in the language from which they were taken or concerning the significance of each in detail. All of this information may be had from any of the unabridged dictionaries. For example, *Webster's New International Dictionary* treats the suffix *-ly* as follows: "**-ly** [ME. *-liche.* A. S. *-līce* -lice.] A suffix forming adverbs from adjectives, participles, and (rarely) nouns; as in slow*ly*, bad*ly*, similing*ly*, unexpected*ly*, part*ly*." Each of the prefixes and suffixes is given a full treatment similar to the above, showing the spelling, the pronunciation, the origin, the function, and some specific applications.

SUGGESTIONS FOR LESSONS AND INDIVIDUAL READINGS

Again it is suggested that the teacher provide a number of short, systematically arranged practice lessons in building up words and in analyzing words, to the end that the students may have adequate notions of how words are made and of the meanings of all of the frequently recurring prefixes, roots, and suffixes. It is important that those who are to teach English to children should have, as a part of their equipment, this essential knowledge, which can be drawn upon without having to be looked up each time it is needed. The less frequently occurring forms need not be learned in this manner. A knowledge of where to find the information about these forms and how to interpret and apply it is all that is necessary.

Two brief but quite satisfactory analyses of prefixes and suffixes may be found in —

Lewis, W. D., and Holmes, M. D. — *Knowing and Using Words*, Chapters IV, V, and VI.

Scott, H. E., and Carr, W. L. — *Development of Language*, Chapters XVII and XVIII.

CHAPTER XIV

Spelling

The exaggerated importance of spelling. — Spelling, in the popular mind, has assumed an importance out of proportion to its actual value. One who writes a letter applying for a position with a business organization would be almost sure to be rejected if he misspelled *business*. The applicant may have no more than a half dozen words that he habitually misspells, but the fact that these appear rather frequently in what he writes condemns him as incapable not only in spelling but in other directions. The public has come to look upon spelling as an index of general capacity. One who spells poorly is assumed to be incapable in other directions, and to lack education and cultivation. In some cases there is truth in the assumption. Perhaps one should be looked upon with suspicion when he applies for a position as salesman, law clerk, civil service employee, or business manager if he habitually writes *buisness*, *seperate*, *to hard*, and *thier*. He may easily be deficient in other ways. On the other hand poor spellings may be his only notable shortcoming, and he may misspell only a few words. The list of common words frequently misspelled has been found to be very limited — not more than a hundred words in all. Of these words the individual poor speller misses only a part. Perhaps twenty or twenty-five common words

regularly misspelled create the impression that he cannot spell and, further, that he is an illiterate, uncultured person.

Since conventional spelling is looked upon as a matter of so much importance, it behooves all of us, teachers especially, to free ourselves of the fault of poor spelling. There is no comfort to be found in assuring ourselves that the importance of spelling is exaggerated, if we know that our spelling is looked upon as an index of our general education and ability. We know, too, that the average individual poor speller misses only a few words. The only thing to do, then, is to recognize the condition as it is and to correct our faults as a fitting concession to the prejudice against bad spelling.

English spelling lacking in regularity. — The fact that English is a hybrid language has contributed somewhat to the irregularity of its spelling. In the eleventh century a Romance branch was grafted upon a Teutonic stem. Neither the Norman-French nor the Anglo-Saxon was a language with permanent, undeviating spelling; each had its own peculiarities rather generally recognized and followed. Putting the two languages together tended to preserve in the one new language, English, the spelling of both the others. To-day we have many words whose spelling and pronunciation do not harmonize. Useless letters and syllables are retained because of the human tendency not to change, and not because anybody feels that they embody anything in the nature of a sacred etymology. It is partly due to the several sources from which our language has come, and partly to other causes, that English has developed more

than twenty-six speech sounds. *C* has two sounds, *g* has two, and the consonant combination *th* has two. As we have already seen, each of the vowels has two or more sounds, and the vowel diphthongs still others, making a total of forty or more clearly differentiated sounds for the twenty-six letters. Nor is this all. The same sound is not always represented by the same letter or combination of letters. The differences in the vowel sounds in *first, purse,* and *verse* are slight, if they exist at all in the common speech. *Blue* and *blew* are pronounced alike. *They* and *hay* and *inveigh* have the same vowel sound. But *cough, through, enough, dough,* and *bough* represent five different sounds for the *ough* combination. It would seem that these phonetic irregularities might be the cause of our spelling difficulties. As a matter of fact they are not. The studies that have been made of misspelled words show few of these words of irregular phonetic composition in the list of spelling " demons." They may give some trouble to the foreigner who is learning English, but apparently their oddities help to fix them in the minds of the native born. Foreigners have testified to the same effect.

Poor spelling is not to be charged to hearing — a failure to associate what one hears with what one writes — but rather to a failure to visualize the letters of words in their proper order. This is shown by the fact that the " spelling demons " are not words with spelling at odds with their pronunciation, but rather words of ordinary agreement of letters and sounds. Ward has shown by experiment [1] that fourteen boys of a class of thirty who

[1] *Pilot Book for Sentence and Theme,* p. 23.

had never seen the word *Bœotia*, saw it and pronounced it as *Boetia*. He also shows that boys who write *prehaps* say *perhaps* and only with considerable difficulty pronounce it as *prehaps*. Boys who pronounced *finally* without error spelled it *fin-i-ally*. There are, of course, some words that are misspelled as they are mispronounced, like *reconize*, *supprise*, and *atheletic*, but they are only a small section of any list of " demons." Heilman [1] reaches the same conclusion in his experiment in this connection. He says, " A very large percentage of the errors is due to faulty observation."

Standards of correctness in spelling. — We have already spoken of standards in pronunciation and grammar. The same principle that governs there applies also to spelling. Not what is logical, not what is in accordance with the derivation and history of the word, but the custom of educated and refined people determines what is permissible. It is true that most of us follow traditions in spelling, and that these traditions are established partly by the logic of the word and partly by the derivation. But if these run counter to the customary ways of spelling employed by educated people the customary prevails.

When the blending of languages occurred from the eleventh to the fifteenth centuries the spelling of both Anglo-Saxon and Norman-French was fluid, not yet crystallized. Chaucer had become conscious of spelling and was desirous of maintaining a uniformity for his own manuscripts. But there is variety in his works and in

[1] *A Study in Spelling;* Colorado State Teachers College, Research Bulletin No. 2, 1919.

all writing for more than two centuries. Shakespeare has been regarded as an ignoramus by some readers because the few signatures that we have show that he did not always spell his name in the same way. Variety in spelling was still common in his day and extended even to proper names. The invention of printing and the printing of the Bible in English had a tendency to standardize spelling. After the publication of Dr. Johnson's dictionary in 1755 there was less variety in spelling than before. In the main the spelling of all common words to-day is the same as that of Dr. Johnson's dictionary. In other words, his spelling became the standard for those who wrote anything for print.

English spelling and American spelling. — The separation of England and America by a wide stretch of ocean and also by political cleavage has brought about some differences in spelling in the two countries, just as it has in the meanings and pronunciations of words. In the main the Americans have been a little less tenacious in clinging to useless letters than the British. We have discarded the *u* in most of the *-our* words such as *honour*, *labour*, and *harbour*. In *The American Language*, Chapter VIII, Mencken has listed thirty of these common words in which *-our* has been reduced to *-or*, as *arbor*, *honor*, *labor*, and *harbor*. He lists eight words in which the English double the consonant and we do not, as in English *councillor*, American *councilor;* seven words from which we omit the British final unaccented *e*, as in *ax*, *axe*, *annex*, *annexe;* seven in which we prefer the *er* rather than the British *re* spelling, as in *center*, *centre*, and *theater*, *theatre;* eight from which we drop a foreign

unaccented syllable, contrary to the British custom, as in *catalog*, *pedagog*, and *program;* and seven from which we omit a *u* when it is combined with *a* or *o*, as in *balk* rather than *baulk*, and *calk*, rather than *caulk*. In addition to these the British prefer *cheque*, *chequered*, *connexion*, *dreamt*, *faggot*, *forgather*, *forgo*, *grey*, *inflexion*, *jewellery*, *leapt*, *premiss*, *shew*, and *waggon* to our *check*, *checkered*, *connection*, *dreamed*, *fagot*, *foregather*, *forego*, *gray*, *inflection*, *jewelry*, *leaped*, *premise*, *show*, and *wagon*.

This makes a list of eighty words. In addition to these there are some others. Either spelling would be accepted in America as correct, but it would make one appear to be consciously aping the British to use such words as *shew*, *cheque*, and most of the others of this list.

The making of spelling books. — Until recently spelling books were desk-made. Authors of spelling books assumed that spelling was a discipline and made up lists of words graded as to supposed difficulty without reference to usefulness. If one goes back far enough into the history of spelling books made for school use, he will find that there were whole lessons on syllables like *a-b*, *ab*, which meant nothing to anybody and served no purpose whatever. In the older books words of one syllable were grouped together and taught; then words of two, three, and four syllables were studied, each group in its turn. These words were taken from the dictionary or from the readers in use in the school without considering whether they were likely to be used in the writing of children. Success in spelling was judged by ability to spell orally the long and hard words in the spelling books. Now, if

spelling were really a mental discipline, if wrestling with long, hard words really built up mental strength to cope with such problems of life as mastering a foreign language, selling bonds, operating intricate machines, or calculating capacities or stresses, this would have been a good method.

We have had to abandon the notion of transfer of training from one intellectual field to another wholly unlike it. Drill in spelling hard words orally does not help in creating a mental machine capable of making an engineer's calculations. Those who taught spelling by the method of the oral spelling of long words seemed to be unaware that each of us possesses three overlapping vocabularies. We have a vocabulary that we can use freely in oral speech. We have this and quite an extensive list of words in addition that we write when we take more time to shape our sentences and select our words than we ordinarily have when speaking. And then there are thousands of words that we understand as we read literature but that we do not ourselves write, much less use in speaking. The theory of the spelling-book makers, if they really gave the matter any thought at all, was that a school child should know how to spell orally any word in this third vocabulary. Obviously it would make no difference at all, or very little difference, whether one could spell a single word if it were not for writing. Since it is only in writing that spelling is used, it follows that a child does not need to be taught to spell his whole reading vocabulary. He should learn to spell those words that he is likely to write either as a school child or as a man. What does a school child write? What does

a man write? A child writes little narratives and some bits of exposition and description in the form of school themes or familiar, personal letters. This covers what adults write, if one adds to it business letters. There may be in any school of thirty pupils from one to ten pupils who in adult life will write more extensively than this. The spelling vocabulary should be based upon what most of the children will write in school or in adult life. The pupil who is destined to enter some walk of life that calls for a more extensive knowledge of spelling will get his best early training by systematically learning only those words that he has need to use in school while he is learning. It would be difficult if not impossible to predict with any degree of certainty what vocabulary he will need to spell in later life; and if one could, it is very doubtful whether this could be studied profitably and economically years before it is to be used.

To make up spelling lists for the school grades one should examine the type of letters and compositions commonly written by children and adults. This is just what the makers of spelling books in the past eight or ten years have done. Ayres made up a list of 542 words by examining the vocabulary of personal and business letters. Jones made what he called a concrete investigation of the materials of English Spelling from the themes of 1050 children and later compiled from this material spelling lists appropriate to grades two to eight inclusive, totalling 4532 words, and published it under the title of *The Child's Own Spelling Book.* C. K. Studley and Allison Ware published a similar list of 3470 words under the title of *Common Essentials in Spelling.* In

the *Sixteenth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, H. S. Pryor made up a *Suggested Minimal Spelling List* by taking all of the twelve studies in existence at the time and including in his new list every word that had occurred in as many as six of the lists. This gave a total of 1309 words.

Lippincott's *Horn-Ashbaugh Speller* contains 3998 words in the minimal list and 580 words less frequently used in supplementary lists, making a total of 4578 words. These were taken from " a compilation made of eleven investigations of the words most commonly used in writing letters and from a study of the words used in keeping minutes. The investigations represent the careful analysis of nearly a million words." It will be observed that the words chosen are those used in adult writing.

In any spelling book made up as these are, all kinds of words will be chosen, from *is*, *am*, *and*, and *the* to the longest and most difficult words commonly used in writing by children and adults. The textbook maker has completed only half of his task when he has made his word list. He must next distribute his words by grades, giving to each grade the words the pupils of that grade, age, and advancement will use in writing. This again is a problem for very patient and careful experimentation. To this method of selecting and arranging words the objection may be offered that the child who drops out of school may have only the spelling, and therefore the writing, vocabulary of a fifth grade child. That is true. But in most cases the children who drop out at that age, as men and women will probably use no

more extensive a vocabulary than that of the fifth grade child, for such children usually drop out because they have reached the limit of their capacity to take an education. The bright child who through misfortune is compelled to leave school at an early age will no doubt lose because of a lack of training in all directions and studies, but he will make up by individual and independent effort a part of what he loses by quitting his school. No doubt he will make up as much of his spelling as he does of his history or geography, perhaps more; for spelling, arithmetic, and reading will be very necessary to him in life, and that necessity will drive him to make up what he lacks.

The spelling assignment. — The old way of assigning a spelling lesson was simply to say, "Take the next twenty-five words." In spite of the new knowledge of how to teach spelling, this is still the prevalent method. A child may know how to spell twenty-one of the words. He may not be aware that he does not know how to spell the other four. The teacher sets him to conning over all the words alike, those that he knows already and those that he does not know. At the next recitation the child will be tested to find out whether he knows how to spell the words. The lesson period is a testing, not a teaching, period. If teacher and pupil were both aware that the pupil could spell all but four of the words, economy would demand that he spend no time on the twenty-one, and sufficient time on the four to master them.

The first task in making the assignment is to find out what part of the list for the day the children already

know. This can be done by first pronouncing with clear enunciation each word in the list, being careful to use in sentences any word whose meaning might not be understood. Then the teacher should dictate to the class all the words of the list and have each pupil write them on a piece of paper. By exchanging papers these may be quickly checked. The words each pupil misses will be his lesson assignment. Some pupils will have none. Others will have many. In exchanging papers for checking, the pupils should be urged to be particularly careful to overlook no misspelled word or doubtful word, and to be careful not to mark a word that is right. Assurance that these marks have nothing to do with determining the child's grade will do much to insure accuracy.

How to study the words. — Learning to spell is mainly stamping into the neurones such an accurate image of the word that thinking of it later when one needs to write it will call up that image of the letters in their proper order, or, in other words, will make the sensation-response connection that will reproduce the word. How can this be done? One suggestion is —

> Look at the word attentively, and then pronounce it, saying each syllable very distinctly, and looking closely at each syllable as you say it. With closed eyes try to see the word in your book, syllable by syllable, as you pronounce it in a whisper. In pronouncing the words, be sure to say each syllable distinctly. After saying the word, keep trying to recall how the word looked in your book, and at the same time say the letters. Spell by syllables. Open your eyes, and look at the word to see whether or not you have it right. This process should be repeated three or four times to strengthen the bonds between that particular sensation and its appropriate response.

Finally write the word three or four times to make sure of the learning. Write it from memory, covering each writing with the hand before making a new one.[1]

With only a few words to learn out of each list it is possible to give each one of them this careful attention and study. The spelling period now becomes really a testing period on one lesson and an assignment period for the next with individual study between. Experimentation has shown that the testing should not follow immediately upon the study period. Study periods should be short with considerable intervals between, twenty-four hours being a reasonable interval.

Testing the results of study. — After a list of words has been carefully assigned and studied as indicated above, the results of the study may be tested at the beginning of the next spelling period. The words may be pronounced, and the pupils may write them in a column from this dictation. This is the quickest but least satisfactory way. A child does not know how to spell a word until he can write it with his attention directed, in part, and that the greater part, upon the thought of what he is writing. Instead, then, of dictating the words as a spelling list it would be much better to include the words in a paragraph of interesting narrative, so that the attention would be on the narrative rather than upon the spelling of words. Of course this introduces new difficulties. There will be a chance to misspell other words than those in the list. The teacher should confine the test to the listed words, leaving the others to be taken care of in later lessons and later grades.

[1] *Lippincott's Horn-Ashbaugh Speller*, pp. xiv–xv.

Reviewing. — Any carefully arranged spelling book will see to it that a word is not dropped with a single assignment, study, and test. Each word should occur in at least two reviews, one after an interval of about a week and the second about a month later. Any child who spells a given word correctly in a dictated paragraph after the first study, and then again after a week and a month, in all probability has that word permanently learned. If the child fails on any word in the reviews, that word should be kept in his notebook list of unlearned words.

Individual notebook word lists. — Spelling is an individual problem. Up to a certain limit the teaching of spelling can be carried on as a group exercise. As has already been suggested, the assignment and the testing can be carried on for a whole grade as a group, but the words that each pupil needs to study are his own, and the study, therefore, is each for himself. Not only must each select out of the assigned list in the spelling lessons the words he needs to study, but each should keep a list of the words he habitually misses in his written exercises. These words belong to his writing vocabulary at the time and should not be left to later study on the assumption that they will be reached in the regular sequence of spelling lessons. The pupil may keep the list, and the teacher may keep it also. A good way seems to be to have the teacher keep one blank book for the spelling lists of all the pupils, setting aside a page or two for each pupil like space for individual accounts in a ledger. The words on a given pupil's page should be those words which appear misspelled in that pupil's written work together with words from the spelling lessons which persist as mis-

spellings after they have been studied in regular lessons and reviews. For most pupils the list will be short. The pupil's list should be a copy of his page in the teacher's ledger and he should contribute to the teacher's list any words that the teacher has overlooked. As soon as a word is conquered, it should be checked off the list.

Attaching satisfaction to learning. — The psychology of learning makes it clear that the learning which is accompanied by satisfaction is both speedier and more likely to be permanent than that which is brought about by indifferent or annoying exercise in learning. Making a game of reducing the length of the list in the spelling ledger or cancelling it altogether is likely to be satisfying. Competing with other pupils in the speed of conquering the spelling list is another source of satisfaction. Comparing scores made on the daily lesson lists with standard scores made by other pupils is likewise interesting. Having the spelling words set in an entertaining narrative or anecdote is pleasing. The teacher will doubtless think of other means of varying the routine of the spelling period and of attaching satisfaction to conquering the misspellings and annoyance to failure to do so.

Spelling demons.[1] — The term "spelling demons" has appeared a number of times. It has been observed that wherever one goes, east, west, north, or south, there are certain words that regularly appear in the misspellings of school children, even of high school and college students. These are the demons. Oddly enough they are not the "long, hard words" of the old spelling books,

[1] For a more complete list see "Appendix A" of *The Little Book of English Composition* by E. A. Cross.

nor are they the words which do not sound as they look. They are not *phthisic*, and *conscientiously*, *shoe*, *eye*, and *bureau*, but *until*, *too*, *separate*, *all right*, *grammar*, and about seventy others as common and simple. Several lists of these "demons" have been made up, each slightly different from the others but all containing a fairly large common group. The following list contains most of the words common to these tabulations of "demons." The twenty-two printed in italics seem to be the most frequent and persistent offenders.

accidentally
across
all right
almost
already
among
angel
arctic
asks
before
beginning
believe
business
certain
coming
comparative
conspicuous
cries
definite
describe
disappointed
divide
doctor
doesn't
either
eligible
February
finally
forty
generally
grammar
having
hear
hoping
immediately
its
know
led
lose
loving
lying
maintenance
meant
minute
noticeable
occasionally
occurred
originally
paid
perhaps
piece
pleasant
poisonous
principal
probably
procedure
professor
quiet
really
receive
repetition
replies
sacrilegious
sense
sentence
separate
shining
sincerely
stopped
straight
sure
surprised
taking
their
threw
together
too
toward
tragedy
tried
truly
until
usually
vegetable
village
volume
Wednesday
whether
which
whose
women
writing
written

Those who have to do with spelling demons think, until they have made a list of them, that " their name is legion." Perhaps as many as seventy-five of them appear in the junior high school. The other sixteen or seventeen are parts of the adult writing vocabulary, including such words as *poisonous, maintenance, conspicuous, comparative, procedure,* and *sacrilegious.*

Young children seem to misspell their words in many ways. They have not yet developed a feeling for the relationships of certain combinations of letters and certain sounds, but children in the middle and upper school grades begin to have that adult sense of letters and sounds going together. The result is that older children and adults misspell a given word in only one way. *Village* is spelled *villiage, business* is spelled *buisness, finally* is spelled *finially,* and *divide* is spelled *devide.* Sometimes two characteristic misspellings establish themselves, such as *accross* and *acrost* for *across,* and *interrest* and *intrest* for *interest.* The single wrong form is the rule, however. The other is exceptional.

Misspellings arise apparently through attempts to follow similar visual patterns. We see *already, almost,* and *altogether.* Naturally the eye follows this pattern and directs the hand to form *alright* instead of the exceptional *all right* as two distinct words. We see *operate, temperate,* and *desperate.* The eye becomes accustomed to the *erate* pattern and sees it also in *seperate,* instead of the unusual but correct form, *separate.* Some of the demons, however, are ear faults. Those who say *supprise, intrest, maintainance,* and *devide* will write the words as they pronounce them. But only a half dozen

of these ninety-three words are commonly mispronounced.

The student will observe that each of the ninety-three words in the "demon" list has its "trouble spot." It is *a* in *separate*, an extra *c* in *across*, *si* in *business* and so through the list. To cast out these demons one must first associate them with their likes, and not with contrasting words. Point out the "trouble spot" in *all right*. Then instead of saying, "Here are the words *almost*, *altogether*, *although*, and *always* with but one *l* while *all right* is two words, and *all* has two *l*'s"; say rather, "Here are two words frequently associated, *all right*. They are just as much two words as *all wrong*, *all through*, *all American*, or *all men*. Use them as two words, never as one."

Remember also that demons are habits. Fourth grade pupils make many errors in spelling that are characteristic of childhood. With practice in reading and writing these childish errors fall away, but the demons *it's*, *dosen't*, and *untill* persist. They are used year after year and so are built into the neurones permanently. When the high school or college student becomes aware of using one of them, his job is not merely to *know* what is right. He must by use build up new sensation-response bonds to supersede the old wrong connections. By disuse and neglect he must allow the old to fade out to such an extent that thinking the word *business* will not throw into gear the machinery to cause the hand to write *buisness*. Effective new bonds may be built up either by many repetitions or by a single vivid experience strongly associated with extreme annoyance or extreme

satisfaction. A boy who failed to get a job that he had set his heart upon because he misspelled *business* would probably never misspell it again after being told that this was the cause of failure. Persistent conscious use of the right forms, persistent conscious neglect and disuse of the wrong, annoyance over failures to use the right, satisfaction attached to using the right, these constitute the magic formula for exorcising spelling demons.

Comfort for the poor speller. — Even a very poor adult speller perhaps misspells fewer than a hundred common words. Of course there are a great many less common words that even good spellers look up in the dictionary, but one is not judged by these. Misspelling the common words is unpardonable. When a poor speller becomes conscious of the fact that he has only fifty or sixty common words to learn instead of the thousands he had imagined, he can summon courage to attack them. Nor has the school pupil an insurmountable task ahead of him. Of the four thousand words in the spelling book the pupil will find that only a few in each lesson have to be consciously studied and learned, perhaps not more than three hundred scattered through the lists for the eight grades. This is forty words a year, about a word a week.

Rules for spelling. — Experiments have shown that a knowledge of rules of spelling is practically useless for children in the middle and lower grades, and of doubtful value in the upper grades. This certainly is true as far as the complex rules with many exceptions are concerned. There are, however, a few simple rules quite general in their application that are of some value to junior high

school pupils and quite valuable to students in senior high schools and colleges. Those few simple rules are listed below. A fuller statement of spelling rules, thirty-six in all, may be found in *Webster's New International Dictionary*, pages lxxvi to lxxvii.

1. Doubling the final consonant.
   Words of one syllable, or words of two syllables with the accent on the second, ending in a consonant preceded by a short vowel double the consonant when they take on a suffix. Examples: *can, canning; rip, ripping, ripped; bet, betting; stop, stopping, stopped; cut, cutting; begin, beginning; occur, occurring, occurred, occurrence; forgot, forgotten;* etc. Otherwise only one consonant is used. (There are some exceptions to this rule.)
2. Final silent *e*.
   A word ending in silent *e* drops the *e* when taking on a suffix beginning with a vowel. Examples : *hope, hoping; serve, serving;* and *divide, dividing.* If the suffix begins with a consonant, the *e* is retained. Examples: *hope, hopeful; care, careless; late, lately; advance, advancement.*
   Exceptions : The *e* is retained to preserve the soft sounds of *c* and *g*, as in *service, serviceable; advantage, advantageous.* Four common words drop the silent *e* before a suffix beginning with a consonant. They are: *judge, judgment; acknowledge, acknowledgment; argue, argument; awe, awful.*
3. The *ie* or *ei* words.
   Several devices have been offered to show the order of the words in *ei* and *ie*.
   (*a*) The simplest is : *I* after *l;* but *e* after *c* — as in *Alice.*
   (*b*) Another is : Words to which *eption* can be added take the *e* of *eption* first — *receive, reception;* but not *relieve, releption.*
   (*c*) And there is the old rhyme :
   I before *e*
   Except after *c*
   Or when sounded like *a*
   As in *neighbor* and *weigh.*

There are six common exceptions to this rule. They are *neither*, *leisure*, *seize*, *seizure*, *foreign*, and *height*.

Knowing these three rules and their few exceptions may be of some value to the adult student or writer. Other spelling rules such as those governing the formation of possessives and plurals will be given in the chapter on the grammar of nouns. Knowing the composition of words, recognizing easily the parts that are the prefix, the root, and the suffix is a decided help in spelling. That knowledge will keep two *c*'s out of *recommend*, and keep two *c*'s in *accurately*, and two *l*'s in *hopefully*. These are only three examples of a kind that can be multiplied indefinitely.

Rules for the syllabic division of words. — In writing, it often becomes necessary to divide a word at the end of a line. This division is always made between syllables; that is, the syllable is not broken up. In printer's practice a syllable of one letter like *a* in *aside* is not left at the end of a line. A common error is to carry over an *-ed* syllable to the next line when *ed* is not pronounced as a separate syllable. The *ed* of *assorted* may be carried over. *Increased* may not be so divided because *ed* is not a separate syllable. *Webster's New International Dictionary* gives ten rules for syllabic division. It is well worth while to know where to divide words, but most people learn this by observation and not by rule. When in doubt about the syllabic division one may turn to the word in the dictionary, or one may find it worth while to memorize the rules for such division.

Various scales for measuring ability in spelling. — The Ayres scale consists of 1000 words in common use

arranged in an ascending order of difficulty. These words were taken from four studies of words in common use. Two of the studies were based upon letters, one upon newspapers, and one upon selections from literature. The words are arranged in columns, words of approximately equal difficulty being grouped in one column and words of the next step in difficulty in the next. The normal expectations for each of the grades in spelling the words is indicated at the top of the test. By means of this test it can be shown whether a pupil is below the average for his grade, up to it, or above it in spelling. The list of a thousand words includes the words most frequently used in writing. A mastery of these words is a guarantee against misspelling all the ordinary words used by ordinary people in the kinds of writing they are called upon to do. Buckingham has made a valuable extension of the Ayres scale.

In an attempt to discover the most commonly used words E. J. Ashbaugh had all the words used in his *Iowa Spelling Scale* chosen from personal and business letters. The number of words selected was 2977.

Various spelling tests. — Several spelling tests have been made by choosing a limited number of words from such scales as the Ayres, the Buckingham Extension, and the Iowa scales. Some of these give the words in columns and some in sentences. A list of spelling scales, and of spelling tests offered for school use may be found in Monroe, DeVoss, and Kelly's *Educational Tests and Measurements*, Revised Edition, pp. 516–517 and in *How to Measure* by Wilson and Hoke.

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CHAPTER XV

The Sounds in English

Importance of sounds in the teaching of language. — One of the arguments frequently heard against simplified spelling is that the etymology of words, their true meaning, is preserved in the spelling; that, for example, *chevalier* would not be remembered as a descendant of *cheval*, a horse, if it were spelled phonetically, and that its real meaning would be forgotten. We have already seen that "true meanings" depend upon what the speaker intends and what the hearer understands him to mean and not upon either derivation or logic. Logically a double negative equals a positive. In common speech it never does and is not so understood. Historically the double negative, or the triple, was a more emphatic negative than the single. The etymology of *window* makes such an opening in a house an eye for the wind (*vindr* + *auga*). On a warm day it is a *wind eye*, but more frequently it is a *light eye* or a *sun eye*. At least no one thinks of the derivation from *vindr-auga* when he mentions *window*. If derivation determined the meaning of words, the only ladies would be those who are accustomed to knead the household bread (*hlaf dige*, "the loaf kneader"). To say that the true meaning of a word is not necessarily to be arrived at by an examination of its etymology is only stating one side of the case. Even

if etymology were necessary to get at the present meaning of a word, the etymology is not traced primarily through spelling but mainly through sound. When we speak of "the consonant shift," Grimm's Law, we are not speaking of the shifting of letters but of the sounds usually represented by letters. While spellings, for the convenience of writers and readers, should keep to the conventionally accepted and uniform patterns, they do not preserve the true meanings of words and only in part the history of words. The philologist strips a word of its spelling and gets back to its beginnings. A knowledge of English sounds is most important to any teacher who wishes to have a wider range of information about the language than the subject-matter to be taught to pupils.

For another reason a study of sounds is important to the teacher. Constant effort must be made to teach children to pronounce the words of the language distinctly and in accordance with the custom of educated people. It is probably true that no two people pronounce exactly alike. Even the elements of words, the vowel and consonant sounds, are made with slight differences by different people. One does not hear his own sounds as others hear them. One may unconsciously be pronouncing so as to be noticeable for his oddity. In school this is one of the teacher's problems — to detect informal, slovenly pronunciation and enunciation, to show the pupils how to speak their words in harmony with the standard pronunciation, and to induce them through practice to make that standard their customary one. Pronunciation is usually hit upon by unconscious

imitation. Realizing what the sound should be, most children have sufficient control of their vocal organs to be able with a few experiments to produce the sound desired. But there are cases where by inaccurate placing of the sound-controlling organs — tongue, lips, etc. — the wrong sound is produced. The teacher who knows what the standard sounds are and what the position of the physical organs is for each can readily help the child who is having trouble with a given sound or a given combination of words. Nor need the teacher wait till some child meets a difficulty that he cannot overcome. She can save the children from falling into habits of sound making that will later have to be erased from the sensation-response system in the neurones before new and better habits can be built up in those neurones. She can help them to begin right, and she can accelerate their learning by foreseeing and preventing false starts and the annoyance and embarrassment of early mistakes.

The organs that produce speech sounds.[1] — Out of the whole range of sounds that a human being can make — grunts, cryings, shrieks, coughs, growls, and the wonderful variety of musical notes — only a limited number are used to form words. The same physical organs that produce the sounds of words, however, produce all the other sounds enumerated. These organs are: (1) the lungs, which supply the air to cause the vocal cords to vibrate; (2) the trachea or wind-pipe, which carries the air to the place where the sound is made; (3) the larynx, the box formed of cartilage at the top of the trachea;

[1] See *Webster's New International Dictionary*, p. xxix, for pictures and diagrams of the organs of speech.

(4) the vocal cords, two membranes stretched across the top of the larynx, which are tense and vibrating when one is speaking but which relax and leave the trachea open at other times; (5) the cavity of the mouth, in which are the tongue, the palate, and the teeth; and (6) the nasal cavity. The nasal cavity and the mouth cavity, when the soft palate hangs in its resting position, together with the pharynx (the common space back of the two and just above the larynx) form a single resonance chamber for the sounds produced by the vibration of the vocal cords at the top of the larynx. The soft palate can be elevated at will so as to close the nasal cavity, leaving only the mouth cavity as a resonance chamber. Sounds made with the nasal cavity cut off from the rest of the resonance chamber are peculiarly flat and unpleasant. We say one "talks through his nose" at such times. The opposite is true. The unpleasant sound is a result of not talking through the nose. Sometimes the nasal cavity is closed by a cold, and then the same effect is produced as by consciously raising the soft palate. "Spring, spring, the beautiful spring" can be said only with the nasal cavity open. With that closed one says, "Sprig, sprig, the beautiful sprig." To make the mental picture clearer, mention should be made of the epiglottis, the valve at the top of the trachea that closes the trachea while one is swallowing and so prevents food from going through the larynx and down the trachea, or windpipe. It has nothing to do with the production of sound, however.

Inside the mouth, controlling and directing the passage of air, are the tongue, the teeth, the alveolar ridge just back

of the upper teeth, the hard palate, and the soft palate. These, with the lips, are capable of so controlling the passage of outgoing air as to make the speech sounds.

We speak of the larynx as the voice box. It is in fact a tubular arrangement of muscles and cartilage. The largest and strongest of the cartilages of which it is made projects at the throat and is visible as the "Adam's apple." The vocal cords are not strings, like violin strings, but thin membranes across the top of the larynx, attached at the sides to the top ring cartilage of that organ, much as if a drum head has been slit across into semicircular discs. Air coming through the slit makes the edges vibrate and produces sound. When they are not drawn tight by their attached muscles, they relax and lie close to the walls of the larynx, leaving an oval opening for quiet breathing. It is possible to tighten the cords for only half their length. In that case their vibration produces a sound an octave higher than the usual sound of the full length vibration, just as a violin string does when it is held down midway by the player's finger. Low-pitched notes are produced by the vocal cords less tightly drawn than is necessary to produce those of a higher pitch, the muscles drawing the cords tighter or relaxing them at the will of the speaker as he desires to produce sounds of higher or lower pitch.

Voiced and voiceless sounds. — When one pronounces *o* as in *note*, the vocal cords vibrate and make a sound like that of a vibrating clarinet reed blown by a player. A sound is also produced when one makes the *hw* sound at the beginning of *when*, *where*, or *white*, but there is no vibration of the cords. The sound is nothing more than

that of air being expelled from the mouth with the parts of the mouth held in a certain position. This is voiceless. The *th* sound in *thin* is voiceless; but the *th* sound in *there* and *these* is made by combining the vibration of vocal cords and the sound of air being expelled from the mouth. Whispering is voiceless, the vocal cords being partly relaxed and the air being controlled as in the usual form of speech by the regular agencies for shaping and controlling the flow of air — the lips, teeth, tongue, palate, etc.

The English sounds. — The alphabet has but twenty-six letters, but there are about forty quite distinct sounds to be represented in print by these twenty-six letters. The principal vowel sounds are —

a, as in *ale, care, arm, ask, all, am.*
e, as in *eve, end, fern.*
i, as in *ice, pin.*
o, as in *old, orb, odd.*
u, as in *use, rule, pull, up.*
ou, as in *out.*
au, as in *fraud.*
oo, as in *hoot* and *foot.*
oi, as in *moist.*

Beside these twenty-three sounds each of the eighteen consonants has its principal sound, and we have the *sh* and *th* and *ng* combinations. Of course there are many shades of sound not represented in this limited list. The phonetic alphabet recommended by the American Philological Association and the Modern Language Association has forty-five characters each representing a distinct sound.

How the consonant sounds are made. — The consonants are those letters which do not make separate syllables or words when used alone. Six of these, *b*, *p*, *d*, *t*, *g*, *k*, and the *k* sound when made for *c*, are called

"stopped consonants," because the air is stopped in the mouth and held for an instant by the tongue or lips and then suddenly released. To make the sound of *b* the lips are held together, the vocal cords are caused to vibrate, and then the air is released. Sound is made both by the cords and by the released air at the lips. The same is true of *d* except that now the stopping is accomplished by holding the tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge back of the upper teeth. The *t* sound is made like *d* but not voiced. For *k* the stopping is accomplished by pressing the middle portion of the tongue against the hard palate. It is not voiced.

Four of the consonant sounds are voiced without stopping the passage of air. These are the nasals *m*, *n*, *g*, and *ng*. They are called "nasal" because the escape of the air is through the nasal passage. This was closed by the soft palate, in the case of the stopped consonants. There are special names for groups of consonants, given to indicate how the consonant is made by the organs of speech. We have such names as *voiced palatal* for *g* in *bog; voiceless palatal* for *k* in *mink; bilabial nasal* for *m*, because it is a nasal produced by closing the lips; *point stops* for *d* and *t*, because they are stopped by the point of the tongue; *continuants* for sounds that can be continued as long as the breath lasts, such as *s*, in *see*, and *th* in *thin; sibilants* for the *s* sounds, *labiodentals* for the voiceless continuants formed with the lips and teeth, like *f* in *feel; dental continuants*, *front alveolar continuants*, *back alveolar continuants*, and *liquids* for the sounds *z* and *s*, *zh* and *sh*, and *l* and *r* respectively.

The vowels and diphthongs. — The vowels *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*,

w, and *y* are made with less mechanical complexity than is required for the consonants. The control of the passage of air by lips, teeth, and tongue is not required. The principal differences in the vowel sounds are produced by controlling the size and shape of the opening through which the air passes. This can be tested by making the twenty-three principal vowel and diphthong sounds, consciously noting how the mouth is adjusted to produce each, whether open or narrowed, whether with lips rounded or unrounded. It will be observed that, as in the case of the consonants *th* and *ng*, several of the vowel sounds are represented by two letters, as for example *au*, *ou*, and *oi*, forming a compound sound pronounced in one syllable. These are called "diphthongs." The true diphthong should be distinguished from the vowel digraph (sometimes called an "improper diphthong"), which is a combination of two vowels in a syllable producing not a combined single sound but two distinct sounds like *ai* in *rain*. In producing the vowel sound *a* as in *farm*, the mouth is wide open, with no narrowing or rounding at all. The short *i* sound in *pin* uses the narrowest possible mouth passage. The other sounds are ranged between these extremes, with short *e* in *met* next to short *i*, and *aw* as in *law* next to the other extreme.

In addition to the names already suggested for the classes of consonants, we have the names for the groups of vowels and diphthongs. These are the *open* and *close*, the *rounded* and *unrounded* to indicate the size and shape of the mouth opening by which the sounds are controlled. The names are not important. The *a* in *barge* and the *a* in *base* are more open than the *a* in *bat* or the *e* in *bet* or

seen. The *o* in *boat* and the *oo* in *boot* are typical rounded vowels. The *e* in *met*, *i* in *thin*, *a* in *aim*, *a* in *cat*, and *e* in *me* are all unrounded. The *e* sound in *me* is also called a " front vowel " because it is made in the front part of the mouth cavity rather than in the back.

These names overlap. *Close* and *open* do not refer to one group of vowels and *rounded* and *unrounded* to another. The *e* in *me* is a *close, unrounded, front* vowel. The *oo* in *moon* is an *open, rounded* vowel.

Glides. — Two other points with which the teacher should be familiar are expressed by the terms "glide" and " vanish." In such a word as *where,* when it is slowly pronounced, there is a faint sound as if *u* in *cut* had been inserted between the *e* and the *r* like *wheur.* Of course the sound is so light that it is not noticed in rapid enunciation. The two sounds *e* and *u* blend into a light diphthong. This *u* sound is called a " glide." If it occurs at the end of a word, it is called a " vanish." Glides are caused by the rapid shifting of the organs, principally the tongue and lips, that control the flow of breath in making the speech sounds, as when the sound shifts quickly from a vowel to a consonant as it does from *e* to *r* in *where.* The results of this tendency to glide is that, with the easy flow of speech and the lack of muscular tenseness required in speaking English, we have rather few pure, unmixed, vowel sounds. Glides are the rule rather than the exception.

Differences in pronunciation. — Elsewhere we have seen that pronunciation cannot be exactly uniform the world over. There are slight differences in the very physical organs of people; no two are exactly alike.

These differences make it impossible for one person to imitate another and produce exactly the same sounds. Climate probably produces differences in speech sounds, affecting the vocal cords and the membrane lining the mouth and nasal cavity by making these relatively thick or thin, dry or moist, according to the climate in which a group or a nation lives. Another cause of difference is the inability of people to hear exactly alike. If like vocal expression produced identical aural impressions, we should have only slight differences in speech. A German or a Frenchman has ears that hear as well as those of an American, and he has speech organs capable of making every shade of sound made by the cultivated user of English. Still there is a difference between the sounds made by a German speaking English and those made by a Frenchman speaking English. We say that each speaks with an accent peculiar to his nation. There is also a difference between the English speech of an Englishman and an American, between that of a Georgian and a Kansan. Now, if all heard exactly alike, they could and probably would train their organs of speech to make sounds so nearly alike as to obliterate national and sectional accent. Just here we are speaking of the making of sounds, not of agreement as to what is the standard pronunciation of particular words, whether *figyure* or *figger*, *prŏgress* or *prōgress*.

Dialect. — In earlier chapters we have used the word *dialect* to indicate a phase of language developed in a given section of a country as, for example, the Midland dialect of English, which gained the ascendancy over the Northern and Southern dialects in the middle period.

Such a use of *dialect* includes differences not only in the making of sounds but in the form of words, in words themselves, and in such matters of grammar as case and tense endings. There is a common use of the word *dialect* that requires notice here. Whenever a section of the English speaking world develops a characteristic set of differences in pronunciation or the shading of sounds so that its speech is noticeably and regularly different from that of other sections, it is said to have a dialect. We speak of a New England dialect, a Hoosier dialect, a Southern dialect, the dialect of the Middle West, etc. In the same sense there is a Scotch, an Irish, a Welsh, an English, and an American dialect; there probably will always be dialects.

The teacher's task. — It is the teacher's task to assist her pupils to work toward the speech sounds of cultivated people. In order to do this she should consciously study the position of the speech organs in making each sound, and when she finds it impossible to get a child by informal imitation to produce a standard sound, she should show him how lips, tongue, and mouth are adjusted to produce it. The teacher should remember that a person is judged pretty largely by externals. Cleanliness, good taste in clothes, manners, and speech are the most obvious of these external matters. It has become a part of the teacher's job to assist her pupils in overcoming personal crudities, and speech is not the least important. It was a saying of the Autocrat that "a movement or a phrase often tells you all you want to know about a person." It is unfortunate that we pay so much attention to externals that we discount a great man's

reputation as a poet or a philosopher or statesman because his finger nails are dirty and he says " caint " — it is unfortunate, but it is true. Therefore, the obligation falls upon parents and teachers to guide children into desirable habits in all matters of good form, good taste, and good speech, so that their admirable inner qualities may pass for all they are worth in a critical world.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL READING

No reports are suggested to accompany this chapter. Some students will, however, want to know where more information can be had as to the mechanics involved in making the various sounds. A simple but adequate discussion of this subject may be found in any good textbook on phonics. Chapter XI of Scott and Carr's *The Development of Language* is good. *The Correction of Speech Defects*, by Helen M. Peppard will prove helpful to every teacher.

The historical development of the sounds and of sound changes and accent is fully treated in Chapters XII, XIII, XIV, and XV of Emerson's *History of the English Language*.

Sounds are also treated in Chapter II of Wyld's *Historical Study of the Mother Tongue*.

CHAPTER XVI

Good English

Good English the English of cultured people. — The customary, habitual English spoken and written by educated, cultured people is the standard of good English. No teacher, committee, group of speech experts or government official has the power to dictate what shall or shall not be used. At the close of the World War the president of the United States, Mr. Harding, put the dormant word *normalcy* into circulation. Notwithstanding his high position, his example has not been followed, probably because the word *normality* serves very well to indicate "a normal state of affairs." A few years ago some grammarians tried to banish the split infinitive, and others tried to substitute *would better* for *had better*. In spite of the weight of authority these men had and the efforts made by teachers who followed their lead in public schools, both efforts failed, and the old custom of placing an adverb between the *to* and the verbal part of the infinitive whenever sense or smoothness of expression required it prevailed. Likewise the historical as well as the linguistically logical use of *had better* triumphed. Then the Simplified Spelling Board with ample financial and scholarly support tried to free our language from some of its illogical spelling, indefensible from any point of view. As a result of all this effort and

expense no impression is apparent except that one now usually sees *program,* and frequently *thru, tho, thruout,* and *thoro.* Perhaps the work of this Board accelerated the dropping of the *ue* from such words as *catalog* and *dialog. Program* was already accepted before the campaign made by the Board.

From such examples as these one might get the impression that language is inflexible, unchanging. A moment's reflection will show that this is not the case. Spellings have changed; *musick* and *publick* and *phantasy* are no longer used. *The* has been substituted for the older *ye* (pronounced *the*).[1] One has only to read a book published in the seventeenth century to see how greatly changed our spelling and other phases of the language have been within a span of two or three hundred years. Old words have dropped out and new words have been adopted; and in some minor features even the grammar of the language has changed. It is true that changes were more freely made in words, spellings, and grammar before the invention of printing and the publication of books in large and cheap editions, especially that of the Authorized Version of the Bible, and the publication of grammars and dictionaries. While printing has retarded change, it has not stopped it. Change is still going on.

In earlier chapters we have seen how changes of form and meaning come to words. Now we are saying that there is no authority but usage that can bring about a change. We seem to be setting up usage as a kind of

[1] The spelling *ye* was adopted because the carelessly written letter *thorn* þ was mistaken for *y*.

super-intelligence, the genius of language, maintaining the sacred forms of speech and permitting change only when it is good for the language to have change. There is, of course, no spirit of the language apart from the minds of the people who use English. Whenever a custom is seen to be useless and to impede communication, it is dropped. The subjunctive mode was discarded when it was found to be difficult to use and to serve no purpose. *Whom* has gone from popular speech in the same way, and fantastic and inconsistent spellings are constantly going. These changes are not brought about in a month or a year. Usually they take a long time. The weight of opinion of scholars, the insistence of individuals and boards, and even the use by some one popular or striking personality, accelerate change; but these cannot compel any change that runs counter to mass feeling for the proprieties of language, no matter how logical or how desirable the change may be. Most of the spellings advocated by the Simplified Spelling Board were reasonable. Their adoption would have been beneficial. The board had the support of scholars as well as the active allegiance of the popular hero of the time, a man who had coined a number of popular phrases. But in spite of the support of money and scholarship, the movement failed.

Inertia is the explanation. English is used by approximately one hundred and eighty millions of people. The forms, words, grammar, and spelling that are habitually read and spoken by these people, that are imbedded in a great body of literature, carry so ponderous a weight that they are not easily moved. Let us imagine that

scholars should decide to follow the popular lead and discard *whom* from the grammar of the literary language, just as it has been dropped out of the speech of the common man. Articles might be written to show that it is useless. Notice that it is no longer required in correct speech and writing might be circulated throughout the English-speaking world. But there remains the habit of that part of the one hundred and eighty millions who write grammatical English; there is the custom of the publishers, who send out newspapers, books, and magazines in the language their readers are accustomed to read; there is the counter influence of the purist scholars who would see the language preserved in its ancient forms. The opposition might even take a religious turn. It might be held to be sacrilege, tampering with divine things, to discard a word used in the King James Bible. One of three things might be the result of the campaign against *whom*. No effect whatever might follow; an emotional counter movement might set in and bring it back even into popular speech; or its slow demise might be slightly accelerated somewhat like the acceleration a boy might give by pushing an ocean liner with the nose of a canoe as the great ship left the dock. Left to itself, a useless form may die slowly of neglect. Left to itself the language may gradually, here by a few people, there by a few people, the use slowly spreading, adopt a new word or even a new piece of grammar. If either *annexion*, proposed in the Civil War period, or *normalcy*, in this decade, had served a need not met in other ways, the language might have accepted them, provided no prejudice sufficiently strong had arisen to defeat the adoption.

By a flight of fancy one might imagine the creation by a committee of scholars of a common gender pronoun with three cases to relieve English speakers and writers from using the awkward double, *he* or *she*, *his* or *her*, and *him* or *her* — perhaps, Nominative, *hesh*, Possessive *hisr*, and Objective, *himr*. Slowly such forms might find their way into the language, until after a lapse of a century they would not seem to be odd. Or by some unpredictable accident they might acquire a slang vogue and advance quickly through the steps of popular speech and colloquial use into the literary language. Such a thing would be following recognized linguistic laws. It is more likely that English, if it ever overcomes this pronoun deficit, and it probably will, will follow the regular channel of accepting the popular solution of the difficulty. In English speech below the "cultured" level the custom is to say, "If anybody doesn't like these words *they* can use others," "I want every boy in this room to bring *their* lunch tomorrow for a picnic in the park," and "If a single man or woman in the precinct fails to come to the polls and vote, you must send a car for *them*." There is a much greater probability of the pronoun difficulty's reaching a solution by the latter method than by the former.

Who is cultured? — We have said that good English is the language of cultured people. Naturally those who are looking for models to pattern after want to know who the cultured people are. A state of society could be imagined in which the cleavage lines between social strata were sharp and clear, absolutely isolating, if not insulating, one stratum from another. In that case we

might have an aristocracy, a middle class, and a lower class, with no social contacts whatever and only economic contact through a few intermediaries. Fortunately that state of affairs does not exist anywhere. Each level shades off to the one next above or next below. There is a blending at the edges. In a state organized on an aristocratic basis it is not easy for an individual to ascend from a lower stratum to a higher. In a democratic society it is done with greater facility. But there is no organization so rigidly aristocratic that such shifts from low to high are never made. In countries maintaining public schools so good and popular that they are attended by all classes alike, where there is no traditional class distinction, the opportunities to rise to a higher level or to sink to a lower depend to a very considerable degree upon inborn capacity. On this account the cleavage lines separating the classes is less sharp in democracies than in aristocracies. On this account also, it must be admitted, membership in the upper social level does not necessarily imply culture. Even education and culture do not always keep company. It may happen that the son of an uncultured, unskilled laborer is endowed with an unusual intellect. He is educated in the public schools and goes through a technical school of the state university, becomes highly skilled in his profession, perhaps a great engineer, makes a reputation for himself through some remarkable piece of work or through his command of men, and achieves international prominence. Such a man may overcome the influences of his early environment, may acquire discriminating taste in literature, music, drama, and art; may acquire the language

of culture and refinement; may marry a woman who has herself either come up through the social strata or been born into the highest class. Or, less fortunately endowed, the man may rise to the highest position in the state and still remain, in spite of his education and his social contacts, essentially uncultured, without refinement or good taste, and speaking no language but the common language of the masses.

A cultured man or woman is one who has good taste in personal matters, in dress, in the arts, and in language. Nowhere does the lack of culture show so plainly and so frequently as in speech. For practical purposes it is not usually possible to select some one person as a model of culture to be imitated in all respects, nor even in the one matter of language. It would be a national misfortune if everybody should speak exactly like everybody else. The attractiveness of variety would disappear. Picturesqueness of speech would vanish. There would be no change in the language from decade to decade. What we have said about good English as being the customary speech of the majority of cultured, educated people is somewhat vague. It cannot be otherwise. Who knows positively whether 90,000,000 people customarily *feel good this morning* or *feel well*, say *prŏgress* or *prōgress*, say *It is me*, or *It is I?* You may if you like say that no cultured person ever says *ĕt* for *ate*, but that proves nothing except the limits of your definition of culture. What is one to do about it? When in doubt as to what to say or write, where may one turn for guidance? Professor Krapp says, in discussing good English:

Any English that hits the mark, that expresses exactly what the speaker or writer wishes to express in such linguistic terms as will convey to the hearer or reader exactly those impressions which it is intended that he shall receive, is good English.[1]

If this is true, good English is not invariably conventional English.

Conventional English. — The language alluded to as the customary speech of cultured people no doubt is good English within limits, but if one were to report a baseball game in the language customarily spoken and written by the majority of cultured, educated English-speaking people it is not likely that it would be *good* English if addressed to the class of people whose most extensive literary excursion is through the sporting section of the popular American Sunday newspaper. The report would not "hit the mark." It would not "exactly express," etc. On the other hand the popular speech, which is *good* English for the sporting page addict, while it might not exactly hit the mark when addressed to a more scholarly person, would be understood by him. There is no vagueness or doubt about the meaning of this: "They must not be no mistake about who is the boss in my house. Some men lets their wife run all over them." One accustomed only to hear conventional good English might have his attention distracted momentarily from the thought by the strange conduct of the grammar, the plural pronoun *they* for the expletive *there*, the double negative, the singular verb with a plural subject, and *their* as a plural adjective modifying a singular noun; but the meaning is clear. Even if we

[1] *Modern English*, p. 236.

admit that such language is *good* English, we should hesitate to permit its introduction into the schools as acceptable English for the children's recitations and written lessons. There are many — Mr. H. L. Mencken is an example — who believe that the schools make no impression upon the language of the children who are taught in them. My own observation is that the playground and vacation speech of the children of common laborers, children who have been well taught in modern schools by teachers who were cultured, educated people with knowledge and good judgment about speech, while not perfect, is decidedly more nearly good, conventional English than is that of their fathers and mothers who have had but little education and this in poor schools taught by teachers without culture and with no formal knowledge of language aside from rules of grammar. To my mind it would be a crime to assume that a child, because of origin, would probably be a street cleaner and so have no need of any language but the popular speech that "hits the mark." It would be criminal neglect to make no effort to teach him the "good" English with which cultured people also hit their marks.

The answer. — Since it is usually inconvenient to adopt the speech of some one person as a model; since it is not easy to determine who is cultured; since one cannot tell what is the customary usage of the majority of cultured and educated people, some other means must be found to test the English one is using. Of course *the language of books* is the answer. What one regularly sees in the serious writings of those literary men and women who appeal to the intelligent and educated is a safe

guide. Such writers are careful of what they say and of how they say it. Most of them are trained to observe how the language is used both in conventional speech and conventional writing. They are trained to be conscious of how they themselves speak and write. When in doubt about a form or a construction they consult dictionaries and other reference books compiled by scholars who are professionally trained to observe the language customs followed by the best of the classic and contemporary writers. One does not need to expect absolute uniformity in the practice of the best writers. As we have already said, the springs of language are with the mass of people who use the language — that is, in the popular speech. Language is never static. Writers are men and women with their own personalities, their own tastes and prejudices. A comparison of any two classic authors belonging to the same period and the same country will reveal individual differences. Still more divergence will be seen if the comparison is between an English and an American author. But the result of a survey of the whole field will show a uniformity so nearly complete that the individual differences are no more prominent than the irregularities on the surface of a perfect orange. The usage of all together makes the sphere. The individual differences in writers supply the irregularities that give the rich texture to the surface.

Dictionaries, grammars, and writers' handbooks. — The professional writer has, as a rule, neither the time nor the opportunity to observe in detail the writings of others to determine what is the common practice of all. He must rely in part upon the observation of

a few. Of course he is keenly alive to what he hears and what he reads, but he must also use the results of the work of scholars to determine what the standards are. These findings of the scholars are recorded in dictionaries, in word books, in grammars, and in writers' handbooks. Compilers of these works are authorities only in the sense that they record the general practice, and not in the sense that they can dictate what is right or wrong. Their own preferences or antipathies have nothing to do with the matter. They understand that, and in modern times make no attempt to introduce any construction on the ground that it is logical or that its derivation demands its use in a certain form or with a certain sense, or that it ought to mean so and so and on that account it will henceforth be used thus. Nor do they try to rule out of use any construction because it is illogical or contradicted by its derivation. The earlier makers of our grammars did that. They had not learned the highest of the laws of language; that is, that good and acceptable English is that which is generally spoken and written by educated and cultured English-speaking people, and not that which the grammarians have found to conform to the artificial rules that they have set up. Rules of grammar, if wisely made, are general statements of the practice of the best speakers and writers. If either logic or derivation governed usage and made rules, we should never have had such queer uses of words as *December* meaning the twelfth month instead of the tenth (*decem*); or *bridal* used as an adjective and applying to a costume, a dinner, or a veil, when it is derived from *bride ale*. We should not have

manuscript (*written by hand*) applying to material either typewritten or hand written; or *manufacture* used as a verb to mean to make in large quantities by machinery when it literally means *to make by hand;* or *anecdote* to mean a short narrative, when by derivation it should mean *something never published,* a *secret.* (We should be better off if some anecdotes had never been published, or if at least they had not been published so often.) Logically the verb in the passive voice construction cannot take an object. The grammars for years have pointed out the inconsistency of the retained object in a passive voice construction and have repeatedly condemned it. And yet Shakespeare made that "mistake" when he wrote, "We are denied access unto his person."[1] The active voice form is *They denied access to them.* The passive is *Access was denied to them.* The object, *access,* in the active construction becomes the subject of the passive. To conform to the rule which declares that only the verb in the active voice takes a direct object, Shakespeare should have written, "Access to his person was denied to us." This man of limited schooling took an objective construction, *to us,* and made a nominative *we* out of it. Milton used the same construction, as also did Addison, Pope, Gray, Wordsworth, Tennyson, Browning, Scott, Macaulay, and Stevenson. Every standard writer whose works have been examined to find this construction has used it, and this in spite of the warnings of the grammarians. What further proof does one need to call up to convince oneself that good English is determined by usage and not by logic or by derivation?

[1] *The Second Part of Henry the Fourth,* Act IV, Sc. I.

The legitimate place of standardization. — Nothing that has been said should be interpreted to mean that there is no place for a standard pronunciation, a standard meaning for words, and standards of construction in sentences. Any student familiar with the Book of Judges will recall the first standardized test in pronunciation. The Jordan fords were guarded by the men of Gilead after a famous battle.

> . . . it was so that when those Ephraimites which were escaped said, Let me go over ; that the men of Gilead said unto him. . . . Say now Shibboleth ; and he said Sibboleth : for he could not frame to pronounce it right. Then they took him, and slew him at the passages of Jordan : and there fell at that time of the Ephraimites forty and two thousand.

Some of the 42,000 no doubt were killed in battle and not for failure to pass in the pronunciation test. Any modern test-maker would know that this test had too small a number of items for a generalization involving so severe a punishment for failure.

When Hawthorne was an American consul in England, he declared that it was his custom to judge by the pronunciation of *been* whether a man appealing to him for assistance to get back to the United States was an English rogue wanting to leave the country or an American rogue wanting to leave England. Failure to observe established custom as to pronunciation, as to the meaning of words, and as to the grammar of sentences may never now bring upon one the fate of the Ephraimites at the fords of the Jordan or of the petitioners in the office of Consul Hawthorne, but it is a serious matter to be ostracised from the society of cultured people. This is what

happens to those whose only "good English" is the popular English of the uneducated millions, especially if the rest of their manners and tastes are as crude as their English.

Colloquial English. — There is a difference between the spoken and written English even of the most refined. Even when one is speaking most carefully, his choice of words and his sentence structure differ somewhat from that which he uses in writing. In conversation there is a still greater difference, for then one wishes to be more intimate, more at ease with one's listeners, than he is in making a formal address or in formal literary composition. But colloquial English is good English in its place. One who "talks just like a book" is correct; he does not violate rules of usage or good taste; but what he says lacks life. The standard of correctness for formal speech is the best oral usage, not the best literary usage.

American English, British English, and provincial English. — No adequate treatment of these subjects can be given in a page. Mr. Mencken has made a whole book of nearly five hundred octavo pages on the "American Language" alone. A number of interesting chapters have been written on British English, and others on provincialisms. All one can do in a brief space is to call attention to these. No observant person has failed to notice differences in pronunciation of words, differences in the meanings of words, and the peculiar phrases that are characteristic of natives of the different sections of the United States. "I admire to have met you" is characteristic of West Florida; to "carry the horses"

to the spring is southern; to "pan out" is Californian; to "corral a bunch of steers" belongs to the cattle country of the West; "I reckon" is at home in Missouri; "far piece" or "fur piece" for a long distance is Texan. These are examples of provincialisms within one country, where the people are in fairly close touch with each other, section with section. They mean nothing more than that the language of one community takes on slight differences in form from the language of another. One section is not right and the other wrong. The two are just different.

The same principle, of course, applies to communities more widely separated than are the sections of the United States, except that the wider the separation either geographically or by difficulty of contact the greater the difference will be. The English language is not exactly the same in Ireland, Scotland, Wales, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and the United States that it is in London.

We have already seen that standard English in the time of Bede and Cædmon was the Northumbrian dialect. In the time of Alfred it was the language as it was written in Wessex. In the time of Chaucer it followed the Midland dialect, especially as that was spoken in London. This should teach us two things; first, that a dialect is not a degenerate standard language; and, second, that the language of no section is the correct form, the standard, and that of each other section wrong or faulty unless by common consent one dialect is agreed upon as the standard. Standard French is that of Paris; standard Spanish is that of Madrid, the Cas-

tilian; and standard Italian is the language of the Florentines. This is not because these dialects were inherently any better than others, but by agreement. There has been no such agreement in the English-speaking world. Some individuals have declared London English to be standard. Others have implied the same of Boston English. But the fact is that each community is a law unto itself and that there is no standard except in so far as the reading of the same literature and a comparison of sounds and forms of speech by travel have approximated a standardization.

The study of the differences among the idioms and pronunciations of the two great sections of the English-speaking world is interesting and valuable on account of the aid it gives to the tendency to approximate a standardized literary language, but that is all. No country needs to imagine that it has " shown up " another by pointing out its variations from the standard language. The Scotch have no call to laugh at the Irish, nor the Irish at the Welsh, nor the English at the Americans, nor the Americans at the English because they are not able " to frame rightly to pronounce Shibboleth."

Citations of opinion. — Lest the student should get the notion that what we are saying here is unsupported by the conviction of others, we append some quotations concerning standards in English.

1. Now, all rules of grammar and rhetoric must be based on usage, for there is no other standard in linguistic matters ; and in order that they may be capable of intelligible statement, the usage from which they are derived must be limited in time. Yet at the very moment when the rules are committed to writing, usage is

shifting ; for language never stands still until it ceases to move altogether.[1]

2. Nobody imposes, nobody has the power to impose, any rules of standard speech on a community. . . . A rule is merely the statement of the general custom of the community. . . . In most instances there is unanimity of opinion, and then we have an unquestioned and general standard use. The great body of English usage is thus made up of forms of language with respect to which there is practically no difference of opinion. . . . It is only by the acceptance of general custom that speech can be made effective at all, and it is every speaker's duty to follow the best custom of the speech as he views it.[2]

3. Good usage is not something to be evolved from one's own consciousness, or to be deduced by some process of reasoning ; it is something to be ascertained. It must be learned just as the language is learned. Furthermore there is no short-cut to its acquisition. Grammars may in some instances help us ; in some instances they do help us, but in others they sometimes do just the reverse. But in no case can they ever be appealed to as final authority. There is one way, and but one way, of attaining to the end desired as a theoretical accomplishment, and fortunately it is a course open to everyone. Knowledge of good usage can be acquired only by associating in life with the best speakers or in literature with the best writers. The latter resource is always available. It is the practice and consent of the great authors that determine correctness of speech. The pages of these are accessible to all. If they differ among themselves about details, choice is allowable until a general agreement settles in course of time upon one mode of expression as preferable to another or to any other proposed.[3]

[1] Greenough, J. B., and Kittredge, G. L. — *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, p. 77.

[2] Krapp, G. P. — *Modern English*, pp. 330–331.

[3] Lounsbury, T. R. — *The Standard of Usage*, p. 98.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

1. Standard Pronunciation.
   KRAPP, G. P. — *Modern English*, pp. 154–166.
   LOUNSBURY, T. R. — *The Standard of Pronunciation in English.*
   MENCKEN, H. L. — *The American Language*, Chapter VII.
   New International Dictionary, pp. xxxiii and xxxix.
2. The Standards of Usage.
   KRAPP, G. P. — *Modern English*, pp. 325–334.
   LOUNSBURY, T. R. — *The Standard of Usage in English*, Chapters II, III, IV, VI, and VII.
3. American English as Different from British.
   KRAPP, G. P. — *The English Language in America.*
   MENCKEN, H. L. — *The American Language*, pp. 29–39, 116–183, 159–178.

PART TWO

Grammar: The Teacher's Margin and the Pupil's Lesser Needs

INTRODUCTION TO PART TWO

The case for grammar in the schools. — The revolt against the teaching of formal grammar in the schools, which set in near the end of the nineteenth century, was a perfectly natural one. Grammar, which should have been only a servant, became the master in the house, demanding much and giving little. From 1775 to 1875 it had run its course through slavish memorization and recitation of rules and exceptions, through the excesses of the parsing craze and the correction of false syntax, through the long period of devotion to intricate analysis, all with little application in speaking and writing, until at last teachers began to question the usefulness of that kind of study and finally to assert positively that the subject was a profitless weight in the curriculum. This reaction, as we have seen, was due in the beginning to the influence of Henry Barnard and Horace Mann eighty or ninety years ago. They urged a less didactic teaching of English, an inductive process of arriving at correct speaking and writing. From 1895 to 1900, grammar was pretty thoroughly discredited. The new textbooks were "language books." Emphasis was laid upon speaking and writing, and not upon parsing and analyzing. To be sure grammar was not cast out. It was scattered through the language books in small disconnected sections. That is the prevailing type of book at present. External appearance changes, but, as we have already

said, the heart of method changes very slowly. With the change of books in many schools there was only a partial change of method. The old memorizing and reciting, parsing and analyzing, is an easier method of teaching than that of directing and shaping children's speaking and writing. Less originality is required for the former, less planning of work independent of the textbook.

Then, too, in the schools where systematic grammar teaching was abandoned for the inductive teaching of speaking and writing through practice, it soon began to be felt that something of value had been discarded. Men and women found themselves confronted with language problems. In speaking and writing they found it necessary to glance forward through a sentence they were framing to determine how to shape it. If through much practice they had acquired an unerring " feeling " for correct usage, there would have been no occasion for a knowledge of formal or systematic grammar, no need for the laws or rules that have been made to state what the customs are. Unfortunately rather few people have that unerring cultured feeling for the customs of speech. Most of us occasionally have to rely in our moments of uncertainty upon those generalizations about usage that we call the laws, or rules, of grammar.

Gradually the teaching of grammar has come back into the schools. In many cases it has not really come back. It has never been away. Grammar has been taught more or less under the protective coloring of " language lessons," and now teachers and superintendents are courageously admitting that the subject is being taught. But grammar has not returned without

discussion. In 1906 Hoyt under the title, "The Place of Grammar in the Elementary School," *Teachers College Record* for November, set up the claims for grammar that it (1) disciplines the mind, (2) prepares for the study of other languages, (3) gives command of an indispensable terminology, (4) enables one to use better English, and (5) aids in the interpretation of literature. There was up to that time no valid scientific data either to support or to disprove these assertions. The lack of such data prompted Briggs [1] to set up a series of scientific experiments to ascertain the truth about these matters.

The method of conducting the Briggs inquiry into the value of grammar as a discipline was as follows: First it should be noticed that the experiment does not purport to test grammar except as a discipline. It does not determine whether or not a pupil's use of English in speaking and writing is improved by a study of grammar. This is all that the recent advocates of grammar have claimed for it. Since the claim had been made that the study of grammar is a mental discipline improving the pupils' ability to see likenesses and differences, to test a definition critically, to apply a definition thoroughly, to make a rule or definition, to test reasons, to take from a mass of data all that are necessary and to use them in reaching a judgment, to demand all necessary data before drawing a conclusion, to reason in other fields, to reason syllogistically, and to detect "catches," the experiment was arranged to determine whether it actually did so.

Two seventh grades in the Horace Mann School of

[1] "Formal English Grammar as a Discipline," *Teachers College Record*, September, 1913.

Teachers College, Columbia University, were used for the experiment, which extended through three thirty-minute periods a week for six months. The conditions were so controlled that there could be no appreciable difference in the two groups, either as to the children or their opportunities to learn. One group studied language and composition while the other studied formal grammar. An elaborate series of reasoning tests was given before the studies in language and grammar began. Tests were given at the end of three months to determine whether the language group had made the greater progress or the reverse. For the next three months the studies for the groups were interchanged so that at the end of the six months' period the two groups could be compared with each other after one had studied grammar and the other language, and each group could be compared with itself by means of the two records, one made after language study and the other after the study of formal grammar. Briggs's conclusions are:

> As a result of this experiment it may safely be asserted that these particular children after the amount of formal grammar that they had, do not, as measured by the means employed, show in any of the abilities tested improvement that may be attributed to their training in formal grammar.
>
> It is not claimed that some other children under more extended and better teaching of formal grammar may not show in these abilities a superiority to other similar children without this subject; but certainly it is a matter that will admit of less confident assertion than before. Indeed, the burden of proof now rests with those who believe in a strengthening of mental discipline from formal grammar.

Another protest against formal grammar, perhaps prompted by evidences of returning vitality in a subject

supposed to be dead, is that of Walter G. Kellogg in the *North American Review* for July, 1920. Mr. Kellogg, without the support of experimental proof, declares that, "English grammar as now taught should be dropped from our schools." He calls the subject "an unneeded, unscholarly excrescence," and would substitute daily themes in its place. This proposal too should be tested under conditions that would make accurate measurements of results possible.

Further experimentation, as Briggs suggests, should be carried on. The revival of interest in grammar is bringing it back, particularly into the junior high school. The subject as it returns is more clearly functional than it was in the years from 1890 to 1900. When experiments are made, they should be made with this type of grammar as taught by skillful teachers and should be directed to discover only one thing; that is, whether a student who has had such a course in grammar is better able as he speaks and writes, or judges his own speaking and writing, to select the forms customarily used by cultured people in their speaking and writing than one who has not had such training. Until such time as these experiments are made, the best we can do is to draw inferences from studies made in other fields and to shape and control the revival as best we can in the light of these. For example, we are now fairly confident that the transfers from one field of training to another are only in proportion to the common elements in the two. If this is true, we must drop the idea of a general mental discipline from the study of grammar and abandon also the idea that one trained in grammar acquires an appre-

ciation of literature denied to others without that training. The new grammar must justify itself as a guide to one who wishes to be confident that a sentence he is framing in his mind is in accord with good usage, or who wishes to criticize and judge what he has said or written. Confidence in speaking and writing can come to but two classes, the ignorant who do not know enough to be concerned about the forms of their speech, and the informed who know what the conventional usage is and why. The half-learned are doomed to be anxious and hesitant — and wrong — a good part of the time.

The proposal to substitute daily themes for the lessons in formal grammar is not new. For years we have been trying the experiment of teaching the use of language through composition and reading. No one proposes to discontinue these, now that grammar is coming back. It is proposed that there shall be not less literature but more — a wider range of pieces read and fuller opportunity for appreciation. It is proposed that there shall be more frequent composition exercises, oral and written, accurate from the beginning, carefully planned and carefully criticized after being presented. Finally, it is proposed that a short systematic course in those parts of grammar that function in speaking and writing shall be given and discontinued when the pupil can make a practical application of them. Any experimental study to determine the value of grammar should be made upon systematic, functional grammar. At the same time a study should be made of the results obtained by theme-writing alone before that is substituted for grammar.

Recent indications of a revival of confidence in the

value of grammar as a school subject are seen in America in the publication of revisions of older grammars and in the publication of new books. Reports of steadily increasing sales of these books indicate an increased use in the schools in spite of the fact that articles in the school journals indicate opposition to the return of grammar study. Those teachers who are using systematic textbooks in grammar are still apparently awed by the weight of the printed arguments against these, but they and the superintendents of the schools in which they teach go on, in accord with their convictions that the composition course has failed to do what was predicted, in the hope that composition supplemented by a short, systematic study of grammar will produce better results. The public, too, has become aware of the failure of the English course without grammar and is supporting those teachers who are again giving attention to it.

The return of grammar as a school subject is more openly approved in England than it has been as yet in America. In the report on *The Teaching of English in England* (1919) by members of the English Association, we find the following recommendations: For children from the age of eleven to fourteen composition is recommended, and it is also said that "Simple analysis of sentences will be one means of developing the power of composition" (p. 6). "The more thorough study of syntax should be begun" (p. 7) in the period between the ages of fourteen and sixteen. For older pupils from sixteen to nineteen years of age a study of the growth and development of the English language is recommended. "Stress should be laid on

changes in pronunciation, idiom, and vocabulary, rather than on a detailed acquaintance with older stages of the language."

Ten years earlier a committee consisting of Dr. F. S. Boas and others made a report to the London County Council in which they said:

Our conclusion is unanimous that some amount of definite grammatical instruction, varying with circumstances and aptitudes, must be imparted to our scholars. . . . An acquaintance with the leading principles of elementary grammar serves to give emphasis and point to the teacher's correction of errors his pupils make in speaking and writing. But not only does a knowledge of grammar facilitate and systematise the labors of the teacher ; it is of real advantage to the pupil as well. We wish him to pass over the period of tutorial correction and arrive at the time when he can intelligently criticize his own efforts, and amend his own blunders. This can surely best be done when he has learnt to examine and register the standard usages of our speech, to refer to them as criteria of accuracy, to employ them as a means of avoiding errors and of resolving doubts, and as an antidote against the uncertainty and degeneracy to which one who has learnt merely by the influence of good examples is especially liable when these models are for any reason no longer available. He thus becomes his own examiner. His imitations become more rapid, more intelligent and less liable to error. He gains by their help a certainty and a facility which the study of mere corrections could never secure.

We regard grammar, therefore, as a most valuable adjunct to the effective and intelligent teaching of composition, and, if for no other reason, would retain it in our programmes of instruction.[1]

The same report continues:

We attach considerable importance to methodical instruction in grammatical analysis. . . . It is a means of establishing the principles which govern the clear and accurate construction of sentences,

[1] *Report of a Conference on the Teaching of English in London Elementary Schools*, 1909, pp. 49–50.

of illustrating the principal variations of form, and of elucidating the more common difficulties. It seems necessary to add that we do not regard difficulties as being removed simply by performing upon them the operation of analysis, and we emphatically deprecate its use as a field for the mere display of a pretentious dexterity. . . . There are clear limits to its value.[1]

Parsing; that is, the examination of the function of individual words, must follow, not precede, analysis. It should be treated very broadly and simply.[2]

Again in 1921 a report was issued under the title *The Teaching of English in England*, by the Board of Education Committee composed of Sir Henry Newbolt, Dr. F. S. Boas, Sir Arthur Quiller-Couch, Mr. J. E. Hales, and others, from which we quote some disconnected paragraphs.

The code of 1890 left English as a "class" subject still consisting almost entirely of *parsing* and *analysis*, and as it was no longer compulsory, the number of schools taking it rapidly declined.

An inspector reports in 1894, "English Grammar has disappeared in all but a few schools, to the joy of the children and teacher."

The sole justification for teaching grammar in school is that it forms the necessary introduction to the study of the language, seeing that it is not a body of doctrine upon correct speech but a scientific description of the facts of language.

There seems to be no reason why it [grammar] should not be introduced in the higher classes of the elementary school, provided those who teach it understand exactly what it is they are dealing with and above all keep it simple.

For the teaching of correct speech in school we should rely, first of all, on correction of mistakes when they arise ; secondly, upon the great power of imitation; and thirdly, at a later stage, though not in

[1] *Report of a Conference on the Teaching of English in London Elementary Schools*, 1909, p. 52.

[2] *Ibid.*

the earliest stage, on the teaching of the general rules to which our standard speech conforms.

Again in 1923 an important report showing the growing conviction in England that a mistake had been made in the dropping of grammar from the course of study was issued by the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools.[1] The report was prepared by a committee of thirty. From it we quote several significant extracts.

It is unanimously agreed that from the earliest stages of the Secondary School course some training in formal grammar is necessary and desirable. . . . There is no difference of opinion as to its usefulness, and any teacher who has tried to improve the writing of English among people who have had no training at all in grammar will understand and appreciate this point. The writing of English can be taught without a knowledge of grammar, but at an expense of much patience and energy.

The fact that grammar has been abused in the past by being made the instrument of the dullest mechanical drudgery does not detract from its real value if rightly used. We admit that even to-day in our Secondary Schools there is much mechanical work done in the name of grammar which is deadening — an enemy to all true progress in education.

In this respect we take our stand with the Departmental Report (*Teaching of English in England*) and urge concentration on the vital and essential points of grammar, those common to languages and without which neither the structure of sentences nor the functions of words can be apprehended.

Under the age of 11.

The unit of language is the sentence, not the word; and it is only by considering, first, the structure of a sentence that the functions of the constituent words will be understood. Dealing with the subject

[1] *Memorandum on the Teaching of English*, Cambridge University, 1923.

separately will naturally disclose the function of the noun, pronoun, and adjective, just as an examination of the predicate will involve an understanding of the verb and the adverb.

From this beginning, by taking a large variety of sentences a fair body of grammatical knowledge can be built up, until a boy of eleven should have an elementary knowledge of the structure of any ordinary simple sentence.

The ages 11 to 13.

Parsing in the old formal, mechanical way is a waste of time. . . . The occasional parsing of a word orally has a value, but always the essential thing is to realize its function in the sentence.

From the age of 13 onward.

For another year at least the teaching of grammar should be systematic, concerned with the analysis of ordinary sentences of all kinds and outstanding inflections and points of syntax. . . .

Regarding grammar teaching as very necessary indeed to a proper study of language in the schools but still subsidiary, most teachers prefer to stop the systematic teaching of grammar about the age of fourteen in order that the time may be given to more valuable aspects of the English teaching.

In conclusion, it is to be said that, in schools, the study of historical grammar and the treatment of grammar purely as a sort of mental gymnastic, should be sternly discouraged.

Professor Otto Jespersen, the great English scholar of Denmark, writing in the *English Journal* (Chicago), March, 1924, concludes:

The teaching of grammar should be made as interesting and stimulating as possible, as easy and simple as possible, concrete, instead of abstract, useful and at the same time scientifically sound.

It should deal primarily with the children's own language and show them how it is constructed, and how it expresses thoughts which the children can understand. *They should be made consciously to see the rules they have already learned to follow unconsciously.* The

inductive method here is absolutely to be preferred to the deductive method.

The grammar which I advocate may not be universal grammar, but at any rate it is real grammar, living grammar, the grammar of the real, living English language.

In America we have been more timid in print than in practice. Grammar has never been entirely dropped out of the course of study, and in recent years it has been winning some respect and consideration from the teachers who actually instruct the children in the grades or in the junior and senior high schools, even though many men and women who make speeches at educational meetings and write articles for the school journals have either failed to sense the return of grammar or have been too timid to advocate what they suppose to be frowned upon by educational dictators. That we are recovering from this timidity is seen, though dimly, in the " Report on English in Normal Schools," in the *English Journal* for January, 1918. Sixty-four schools, out of 106 reporting, have a distinct course in grammar for prospective teachers. The report concludes with the rather timid recommendation:

A brief course in grammar should be given to all those who expect to teach in the high school or the upper grades of the elementary school. This course should aim at giving students a mastery of the science of grammar, with some rudiments of historical grammar. It will be understood that this is not the grammar which should be taught to children. It is to be given in the normal school only because teachers should know much more grammar than they are called upon to teach.

The purpose of the remaining chapters of this book is to give to prospective English teachers an understanding

of the grammar of the English language which will enable them to teach children in the schools in accordance with the recommendations of Professor Jespersen and of the English committees that have studied these problems with such care and thoroughness. Once more it needs to be said that the teacher's equipment should be, first, what the pupil actually needs and can make use of in school and in life; but, in addition to that, the teacher should have a wide margin of information from which he can draw for inspiration and for the illumination of what he teaches. His knowledge should also be sufficient to enable him to judge what is essential for the pupil and what he needs to widen his own margin of information.

Grammars and the laws of language. — The writers of textbooks in grammar have no more authority to make the laws of language than the writers of textbooks in astronomy have to make the laws of the solar system. Astronomers observe how the heavenly bodies move in their orbits and then set down the results of their observations and calculations as the laws of astronomy. The grammarians should do the same for language. They should become conscious, through careful observation of the speech and writing of cultivated people, of how the language is used and then, following some convenient system of arranging the material, make a record of what those customs are. Unfortunately that has not been the manner of the makers of grammar textbooks until recently. These writers from the middle of the eighteenth century to the end of the nineteenth assumed that they could dictate the laws of the English language, that they could shape it to conform to logic or to parallel

the language of the Latin classics. That position has been abandoned now, but the effect of making arbitrary rules and of teaching these in schools generation after generation is apparent in the stiffness and artificiality of the diction and sentence structure of many who depend largely upon what is taught in the schools rather than upon their own observation of what is accepted in the free, idiomatic expression of effective users of the language.

Grammars are not useless. A book that is a faithful record of the customs in speech of educated people can be of great value to one who has neither the opportunity nor the inclination to make wide observations and generalizations of language customs. One may be in doubt as to whether the word *data* is used with a singular verb. It is, of course, the plural of *datum*, a word never used in English. The history and the logic of the word call for a plural verb. Only the special observer of language customs could find and report to the many who might wish to know whether it is not sometimes used as a singular noun even by careful speakers.

No attempt is made in this book to go beyond usage for authority, or to appeal to history or logic to support a form of speech contrary to the customs of the best writers and speakers. " Whatever is, is right." The only question is whether it really *is*. No doubt the author will frequently err in judgment as to what is the prevailing custom. That cannot be avoided so long as we are subject to human limitations. If Kipling wants to say, " The tumult and the shouting dies," if he feels the oneness of *tumult* and *shouting* to the extent of wanting to

write a singular verb with the two, we can accept it. But if it appears that *dies* was merely used to rhyme with *sacrifice* we shall be inclined to think the use unjustified until we see it supported by other writers of distinction.

CHAPTER XVII

The History of Grammar as a School Subject

Why study the history of grammar? — Nothing merits respect merely because it is old, but a certain consideration is due to anything that seems to have served a useful purpose for a long time and still persists. There must have been something in it that served a valuable purpose or mankind would have discarded it long since. Grammar as a subject for school study is so old that it seems worth while to trace its progress to discover if possible what purpose it has served — what purpose the school men of the past thought it served — to deserve its place for so many years through such varied fortunes as its annals show.

The student who is preparing to become a teacher takes grammar as an established part of the common school curriculum. It seems so much a part of the program of studies that there is no more disposition to ask why or when it became a school study than there is to ask the same questions about reading or arithmetic. It would be well to make these inquiries about all of the studies. One might acquire a very high degree of respect for them if he could know what needs called for their introduction into the schools, how the materials were organized in the beginning, and what methods were used by those who taught them in the schools of the past.

As far back as one can go in the authentic history of education, grammar has been a school subject. It was taught in the schools of Athens in the time of Pericles; but the grammar of the Greeks was more inclusive than the grammar of to-day. It was a study of usage in literature, and not merely of the laws of language. The most famous of the writers on Roman education was Quintilian (35 A.D.–95 A.D.). In his *Institutes of Oratory*, recovered in 1416 in the library of the monastery of St. Gall in Switzerland after having been a long time lost and during that period known only in fragments, the Roman writer praises grammar as the foundation study in the schools. The detached sentences quoted below are from Book I, Chapter IV, of the *Institutes*.[1] The "grammarians" were the teachers of language and literature.

In regard to the boy who has attained facility in reading and writing, the next object is instruction from the grammarians.

. . . . . .

Let no man, therefore, look down on the elements of grammar as small matters; not because it requires great labor to distinguish consonants from vowels, and to divide them into the proper number of semivowels and mutes, but because, to those entering the recesses, as it were, of this temple, there will appear much subtlety on points, which may not only sharpen the wits of boys, but may exercise even the deepest erudition and knowledge.

Quintilian is writing about Greek and Latin grammar and is including in the subject not only the study of the forms of those languages but the study of literature as well.

[1] Quintilian — *Institutes of Oratory*. Trans. by J. S. Watson, London, 1892. (Selection from Cubberley, E. P. — *Readings in the History of Education*).

Grammar in the Middle Ages. — The study of grammar has probably never been held in higher esteem than it was in the Middle Ages, and there has probably never been a time when school studies, grammar included, reached a higher degree of formalism. All studies were in Latin, the common language of the church and of educated men. Grammar might have served, and probably did serve to a limited extent, in making the literature comprehensible; but the student must remember that the study of the Greek and Latin classics was in total eclipse in this period. The schools were for the study of Aristotle. Education was an intellectual discipline, not a means to fit the educated man to meet the situations of life. The studies already established in the classic period were now standardized and formalized into the Seven Liberal Arts. These were divided into the *Trivium* — Grammar, Dialectic, and Rhetoric; and the *Quadrivium* — Arithmetic, Music, Geometry, and Astronomy (Astrology).

Donatus. — There were textbooks for use in the schools, but these were manuscripts on parchment, and so were very scarce. A teacher might be fortunate enough to have a book, but students recited or copied from dictation. The first popular book on grammar was written by Donatus about the year 400. It is a book of questions and answers.

There were other books in use in the schools of the Middle Ages, for example, that written by Priscian about the year 500; but Donatus came to be so nearly a synonym for grammar that we find in the literature of the time the common noun *donat* used instead of the word *grammar*.

This work was used as a textbook for approximately a thousand years.

The high esteem accorded to grammar in the Middle Ages is indicated by the following statement written in 819 by Rhabanus Maurus, Archbishop of Mainz and perhaps the most famous pupil of that famous scholar Alcuin, the Bishop of York, who was induced to come from York to Tours by Charlemagne, there to take charge of the work in education which the emperor was then promoting.

> Grammar takes its name from the written character (*grammas*, a letter) as the derivation of the word indicates. The definition of grammar is this : Grammar is the science which teaches us to explain the poets and historians ; it is the art which qualifies us to write and speak correctly. Grammar is the source and foundation of the liberal arts. It should be taught in every Christian school, since the art of writing and speaking correctly is attained through it. How could one understand the sense of the spoken word or the meaning of letters and syllables, if one had not learned this before from grammar? How should one learn to know the articulation of discourse, the advantage of figurative language, the laws of word formation, and the correct forms of words, if one had not familiarized himself with the art of grammar? [1]

If grammar were both a science and an art, and capable of doing all that Maurus claims for it, the devotion of the Middle Ages to it could easily be understood ; but when one reads the few meager pages of Donatus, one has doubts about the efficacy in " qualifying us to write and speak correctly " much less " to teach us to explain the poets and historians."

[1] Rhabanus Maurus — "Education of the Clergy," from *Readings in the History of Education*, by E. P. Cubberley,

The bridge between Latin and English grammar. — The popularity of Donatus and Priscian lasted well into the fifteenth century. Indeed one finds the question-and-answer method carried over into the *New England Primer* and into some of the English grammars of the eighteenth century. The decline in the popularity of Donatus prompted the writing of a Latin grammar in England in the early years of the sixteenth century. The first establishment of the new learning in England [1] came with the reëstablishment of the cathedral school of Saint Paul's. John Colet had become dean of St. Paul's, after having had a part in bringing the revival of interest in learning to Oxford. Colet was an Oxford graduate, who had studied Greek in Florence from 1493 to 1496. Returning to England when the new interest was at its height in western Europe, he did much to attract attention to the new humanism. Erasmus, the famous Dutch scholar, was at the time teaching in Cambridge. It was he who urged Colet to reëstablish St. Paul's school on humanistic lines. This Colet did, endowing the school with all his wealth. William Lily (1468–1522) was made headmaster of the school. He was in active sympathy with the ideas and plans of Colet and Erasmus, for he too had studied in Italy. Among English scholars Lily is known as the author of a Latin grammar, written in English, which was to the new English schools for many generations what Donatus had been to the continental schools for the thousand years preceding the sixteenth century. In the history of education Lily occupies a larger place than the authorship of the gram-

[1] Cubberley, E. P. — Readings in the *History of Education*, p. 275.

mar alone would give him. His associations with Erasmus, Grocyn, Linacre, and Colet make him one of the leaders in the movement away from the old scholasticism of the Middle Ages. His book and his school did much to introduce the study of the pure Latin of Cicero and Quintilian into the place long held by the corrupt monkish Latin of the Mediaeval schools. Lily's *Latin Grammar*, known also as the *Grammar of Henry VIII*, was first published in 1512. Thirty years later it was reissued as a *Short Introduction of Grammar*, and as late as 1726 an edition of it was printed in London, edited by John Ward. This book, then, held its place for more than two centuries.

Our interest here is not in Latin grammars but mainly in English grammars. When first a textbook was published in English to do for the student of English what the Latin grammar had done for the Latin student, the old system of Latin studies was broken, for the native speech of the English was thus recognized as being worthy of study for itself. From that day forward English gradually, but very slowly indeed, made its way to the front as the language of the schools and opened up for the schoolboy not only the literature of his native tongue but in time the history, mathematics, and science that are the core of the liberal curricula of the modern school.

When one recalls the rise in popularity of English grammar, the inflation of the textbooks in volume, the quantities of useless material they contained, and the dreary grind to which children were subjected in learning this material, one's enthusiasm for the subject fails.

But the student can set over against this the fact that English grammar was less useless, less dreary, and less wearisome than the Latin that it superseded in popularity. The method of teaching Latin grammar in a way determined what the school curriculum should be. When the popularity of Latin began to pass in England, when Latin ceased to be the only means of communication among educated men, when it was no longer the sole language of the church and of literature and politics, it was natural that English should take its place. But it was likewise natural that there should be little change in method. We seem to be quicker in finding new things to do than in devising methods by which they are to be done. The grammar of English soon came to be the center of interest in the schools. It was taught for its own sake as a discipline, as an end, and not as a key to speech and literature. So the textbooks grew in volume from a few small pages, thirty to forty in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, to immense volumes of 750 and 1100 octavo pages by the middle of the nineteenth century when the bubble burst.

Ben Jonson's grammar. — Erasmus, Colet, and Lily were bringing from Italy to England an enthusiasm for the new learning in the very years when Columbus was bringing to Europe the knowledge of a new world. The New Learning was the classical literature of Greece and Rome. Its sway lasted more than a hundred years. When William Shakespeare attended Stratford Grammar School about 1580, he did not learn there the marvelous command of the English language that later characterized what he wrote. His friend Ben Jonson

says that Shakespeare "had little Latin and less Greek." This little he got at the Stratford school. Perhaps we should rejoice that he got no more. If he had taken the traditional education of grammar school and university in Latin and Greek grammar, and in Latin and Greek authors, he probably would have had neither the time nor the inclination to read the heart of nature and the mind and soul of man. Whatever grammar Shakespeare had was Latin grammar. The first English grammar we have was written by Shakespeare's friend and rival dramatist, Ben Jonson, and published in 1640, three years after Jonson's death and twenty-four after Shakespeare's. It is a small book full of good common sense. It is modeled after Latin grammar; but Jonson did not slavishly invent parallels in English to correspond to every item of Latin grammar, as did the later writers of English grammars. Many of the explanations and supporting quotations are in Latin; but where Jonson is writing freely in English, the book displays some of the liveliness that one would expect of the author of *Bartholomew Fair* and *The Silent Woman*. All of the authorities he cites are Latin, including nine authors beginning with Terentianus Maurus of the second century, Quintilian of the first, Priscian of the sixth, Petrus Ramus of the fifteenth, and Sir Thomas Smith, who published a Latin grammar in 1568.

About a half of the book has to do with the alphabet, a fourth with the parts of speech, and a fourth with syntax. The book is called *The English Grammar Made by Ben Jonson for the benefit of all Strangers out of his observation of the English Language now spoken and in*

use." It is a volume that, if it were printed closely, would fill from seventy-five to a hundred pages and is well worth reading to-day both for its historical value and for its own sake.[1]

The grammars of the eighteenth century. — Ben Jonson's grammar of 1640 was not used in any school so far as we know. It must have been reserved "for the benefit of all Strangers" as the title quaintly says. The next grammar in English that we hear of was that published in 1706 by John Brightland. Brightland was only the publisher. The author is unknown. In the eighteenth century grammars seem to have been in demand in England. Following the publication of Brightland's *A Grammar of the English Tongue* in 1706, there were published between 1740 and 1762 three grammars that soon came to be widely used in English schools and later in American schools. These were Thomas Dilworth's *A New Guide to the English Tongue* (1740),[2] *The British Grammar* by an unknown author (1762), and Bishop Robert Lowth's, *A Short Introduction to English Grammar* (1762). Samuel Johnson's *Dictionary* (1755) had a brief grammar preceding the main body of the volume. The fact that Dilworth's book was three textbooks in one volume made it popular in times when books were expensive. Dr. Lowth's book was the first book treating solely of grammar to gain wide popularity as a textbook in America.

[1] A modern reprint of Ben Jonson's grammar is edited by Alice Vinton Waite and published by Sturgis and Walton, 1909.

[2] Dilworth's *New Guide to the English Tongue* was primarily a spelling book, but it contained a reader and a "Brief but Comprehensive English Grammar."

Noah Webster's Grammatical Institute. — Many suppose that Noah Webster's *Grammatical Institute of the English Language*, 1784, was the first American textbook to be used widely in American schools. Lyman[1] has shown the fallacy of this assumption. Hugh Jones, a professor in the College of William and Mary, wrote a grammar in 1724, and Lowth's books were used before Webster's was published. The first grammar written by an American and published in America was the little *First Easy Rudiments of Grammar, Applied to the English Tongue*, written for his two grandsons by Samuel Johnson, the first president of King's College (now Columbia University) and published in New York in 1765. This book was written "by one who is extremely desirous to promote good literature in America, and especially a right English education" and was "for the use of Schools."

Lindley Murray and his grammars. — In the Middle Ages, *donat* became a common noun indicating the grammar of Donatus. In the first half of the nineteenth century, *Murray* might have been so used, for the grammars of Lindley Murray were so widely known, were published in so many and such varied editions, were so influential in shaping the grammars of others, that the mere word *Murray* suggested English grammar. In 1757 Lindley Murray's name was on the roll of pupils in the English school of the Academy and Charity School of Philadelphia. In 1795 he published in York, England, his

[1] An authoritative study of textbooks in grammar and of the early teaching of English grammar in America is R. L. Lyman's *English Grammars in American Schools before 1850*, a doctor's dissertation to which the author of this book is greatly indebted.

first grammar, *English Grammar, Adapted to the Different Classes of Learners.* Two years later he published *An Abridgement of English Grammar*, and in 1814 *An English Grammar in Two Volumes.* Thus he had textbooks for elementary schools, academies, and colleges. Many editions of these and other forms of the books were published. Lyman estimates that between 1795 and 1850 Murray had sold a million copies of his books and that another million copies of books by other authors who based their works on his had also been sold.

Other popular texts. — Before leaving this brief sketch of the books in use in the schools between the beginnings about 1775 and the high point in 1850, some mention, if nothing more than the titles and dates, should be made of a few of the other popular books of the period. The list should include Caleb Bingham's *Young Ladies' Accidence, or a Short and Easy Introduction to English Grammar; Designed Principally for the use of Young Learners, More Especially Those of the Fair Sex, Though Suitable for Both* (1785), 45 pages, 16 mo., Greenleaf's *Grammar Simplified* (1819), Samuel Kirkham's *An English Grammar in Familiar Lectures* (1823), Bullion's *Practical Lessons in English Grammar* (1846), Goold Brown's *The Institutes of Grammar, Methodically Arranged, with Examples for Parsing, and False Syntax for Correcting* (1823), and Samuel S. Greene's *A Treatise on the Structure of the English Language, or the Analysis and Classification of Sentences and Their Component Parts* (1847).

The "Grammar of Grammars." — Goold Brown's book, consisting of a twenty-page introduction and 1070

octavo pages of text, was the high point in the "mid-summer madness" of grammar. When one considers the first little book on English grammar, Ben Jonson's volume containing about enough words to fill Goold Brown's introductory twenty pages, when one considers Jonson's simple and in some ways quite modern treatment of the English language, or when one compares Samuel Johnson's first little American grammar of about the same size, or Bingham's, and then turns to this huge tome, one marvels at the extent of man's ingenuity and imagination. The grammar prefixed to the seventh edition (1773) of Samuel Johnson's *Dictionary* occupies thirty of the two-column pages. Eight and a half of those pages are given to a treatment of orthography, and this is merely taking the alphabet letter by letter and commenting on it. Seventeen and a half pages are given to etymology. In these pages each part of speech is taken up and treated briefly as to its forms and functions. A few lines are devoted to syntax. Dr. Johnson explains that owing to the scarcity of inflections in English we have no syntax, no necessary agreement of noun and adjective, noun and pronoun, noun and verb. Then he gives the single statement that a subject and verb must agree in number. The remaining four and a half pages are given to prosody, a subject not included at all in modern grammars.

Since modern grammars do not include orthography and prosody, the proper comparison of Johnson with a grammar written since 1900 would include only Johnson's seventeen and a half pages of etymology. In these he gives one page to the article *a* and *an*, one to

nouns to show how plurals and possessives are formed, one to adjectives, one and a half to pronouns, three and a half to the verb in general, two more to irregular verbs, and the remaining seven pages to the derivation of words — a subject not usually treated in modern grammars.

In contrast to this, Goold Brown's *Grammar of Grammars* uses 129 pages for his introduction, which includes his theory of teaching the subject. Orthography receives 66 pages, etymology 225, syntax 304, and prosody 125. This is followed by keys to the preceding parts, filling another section of 137 pages. Brown is the apostle of parsing. His book contains in each section a great many examples for parsing and examples of false syntax for correction. The humor of the latter can be appreciated when one notices that many of his examples of " false " syntax are quoted from classic writers and the standard authors of his day, those whom we now recognize as the makers of the language. Because the standard usage did not happen to agree with the " rules " of the grammarians, this maker of grammars set college youths the task of " correcting " Addison, Pope, Swift, and Shakespeare. Much space in the book is given to quoting other grammarians for supporting authority or to arguments in contradiction to positions they have taken on disputed grammatical points.

One does not now understand what considerations ever required students to explore the wilderness of those eleven hundred pages, but one must remember that the *Grammar of Grammars* was a part of the educational furniture of the college course only two generations ago. If your

grandfather owned any considerable collection of books, that volume was probably one of them. Perhaps he contented himself with Fowler's grammar of 750 pages or Lindley Murray's two-volume college grammar. If he belonged to a later generation, his collection might have been limited to the thick but less pretentious volumes of Bullion, Greene, or the comparatively modern Swinton, works built upon the assumption that we learn to speak and write by knowing and applying rules, that we acquire a familiarity with rules through intricate exercises in parsing and analysis, and that, in addition, grammar is a very valuable mental discipline.

The early teaching of English grammar. — Since Latin grammar was the center about which the studies in the older schools were grouped (it was almost the only study in many of them) it was natural that English grammar should have been the chief study in the schools established after the decline in popularity of the Latin schools. These had been quite literally "Latin grammar schools," taking children from the "dame schools" or "petty schools" as soon as they were able to read a little, sometimes at the ages of eight or nine years, and putting them to the study of Latin grammar. The method was mainly that of repeating after the teacher, and finally memorizing, rules and exceptions, word for word through the book, to the end that finally they might be able to read and "construe" (explain the meaning or translate) Latin authors, chiefly Cæsar, Cicero, and Vergil.

The exaggerated importance of the study of grammar is responsible for the fullness of our information about

the textbooks that were prepared for the use of teachers and pupils in the schools. There are three sources from which information, fairly full but often lacking in detail and accuracy, may be obtained. These are (1) Henry Barnard's list in the *American Journal of Education*, (2) William H. Wells's list in the preface to *A Grammar of the English Language* (1852), and (3) the introduction to Goold Brown's *Grammar of Grammars* (1851). Brown lists about three hundred and fifty authors or compilers of textbooks in grammar. For practical purposes the shorter selective lists of Lyman's *English Grammar in American Schools Before 1850*, pp. 155–157 and 163–165, are sufficient.

Grammar in the public schools. — English grammars such as those of John Brightland (1706), Thomas Dilworth (1740), and Robert Lowth (1762) were imported and sold in America before the Revolutionary War, beginning about 1750. The little book of Samuel Johnson was written and published in America in 1765; but grammar did not find its way into the schools until about 1775, and it was not until 1789 that cultured Boston recognized the turning of the tide away from Latin and toward education in English. In that year the Town Meeting authorized the establishment of three "reading schools" to teach "Spelling, Accentuation, Reading of Prose and Verse, and English Grammar and Composition." But between 1750 and 1775 some sixty private schools elsewhere had begun to teach English grammar. Lyman says:

> . . . . They were most numerous in the middle colonies in the regions neighboring to Philadelphia Academy, where Franklin's

program of the vernacular struck a plane never reached before. The New England colonies . . . resisted the innovation for two decades after the middle colonies had accepted it.

A careful consideration of Franklin's plan leads to the conclusion that this English school . . . . deserves the honor of setting a positive example of a full vernacular program of secondary grade. . . . . Therefore the year 1750 is selected as the date when . . . . grammar entered seriously into American education. To Benjamin Franklin in this, as in many other respects, America owes a debt of gratitude.[1]

The summarizing paragraph of Lyman's Chapter III, "Influences Adding Grammar to the Curriculum," deserves quoting in full.

In answer, then, to the question, When? the answer is 1750. Where? In the middle colonies, headed by Pennsylvania. Why? As the core study of an English program for students fitting for practical life. By whom? By Hugh Jones, the first American grammarian ; by Waterland, who first taught grammar in an American school, [William Waterland gave notice in the South Carolina Gazette Nov. 16, 1734 that in his school at Wassamacaw " the Rudiments of Grammar are taught, but more particularly English."] ; by Franklin, who projected the model English program ; by William Samuel Johnson, first president of Columbia, the first American to write a grammar published in America and the first college official to put English on a par with the classics in a college curriculum.

This is a far cry from the credit which has hitherto been awarded to Noah Webster and New England.

One point that should be emphasized here is that grammar was the study which contributed most toward breaking up the old classical program in the secondary schools. Whatever faults the grammar program may have taken on in its rapid expansion between the years

[1] *English Grammar in American Schools before 1850*, p. 68.

1775 and 1850, it served a good turn in the beginning. One may even charitably excuse its later folly on the ground that the method which was largely responsible for its inflation was inherited from the old classic schools.

The methods employed in teaching grammar. — The avowed aim of the teaching of grammar was to train finished writers and speakers of English. Up to the time of the appearance of Goold Brown's grammar in 1823, the method was that of memorizing rules and exceptions in the confident expectation that these would be applied in speaking and writing. From 1823 to the publication of Greene's *Analysis*, 1847, the method was that of the minute parsing of every word in every sentence. From 1847 to about 1890 analysis in part superseded elaborate parsing; but through those years there was a persistent movement, at first led by Henry Barnard and Horace Mann, toward the inductive teaching of language through oral and written practice under guidance and correction. This finally resulted from about 1895 to 1905 in almost doing away with the systematic teaching of grammar from textbooks. Gradually within the past ten or fifteen years there has been a reaction against this neglect. It has been seen that the incidental teaching of language through practice in speech and writing has not brought forth the results hoped for. Apparently a knowledge of " why " and a systematic application of this knowledge supplied a foundation that purely inductive and incidental teaching has failed to give. Grammars are coming back, but they are not the books they once were. They are not

lords of the curriculum dominating the schools, but unpretentious volumes intended to serve by telling the truth simply and thus helping young people to organize in their own minds the common practices of those who speak and write the English language well. Of course there was parsing in the early study of Latin grammar and parsing in the period of rote learning in which Webster and Lindley Murray were prominent, and there is some parsing to-day; but one who is acquainted with parsing as limited to such simple statements as, "*She* is the nominative singular form of the feminine personal pronoun," can have no conception of the elaborate complexity with which each word in a long sentence was parsed, how, to make English parallel Latin, grammar was invented where it did not actually exist and how this parsing was recited in a glib, mechanically perfect flow of words that covered up the lack of independent thinking and of knowledge back of the formulæ for parsing.

The rote method goes back to the study of Latin grammar. Colet in the "Epistle to the Reader" in Lily's *Latin Grammar* (1512) recommends that "the diligent master make not the scholar haste too much." He writes:

> The best and chiefest point is that the schollar have in minde so perfectly that that he hath learned, and understood it so, that not only it be not a stoppe for him, but also a light and helpe unto the residue that followeth. Further it is profitable, not only that he can orderly decline his noune, and his verbe, but everyway, forward, backward, by cases, by persons: that neither case of noune, nor person of verbe can be required, that hee cannot without stoppe or studie tell.

Brinsley a hundred years later would have the pupils read their lessons over many times, learn every rule with its title " without booke." Brown in 1823 writes:

In etymology and syntax, he [the pupil] should be alternately exercised in learning small portions of his book, memorizing and then applying them in parsing, till the whole is rendered familiar.

Three hundred years showed little change in method. The results of this method were summarized by Asa Rand in the *American Annals of Education and Instruction,* in 1833, when he wrote:

In the period of my boyhood we had strange notions of the science of grammar. We did not dream of anything practical or applicable to the language we were using every day till we had "been through" the grammar several times and parsed several months. Why? Because we were presented at once with a complete set of definitions and rules which might perplex a Murray or a Webster without any development of principles, any illustrations we could understand, any application of the words to objects they represent. We supposed that the dogmas of our "gram books" were the inventions of learned men, curious contrivances to carry the words of a sentence through a certain operation which we called parsing, rather for the gratification of curiosity than for any practical benefit. The rule in grammar would parse the word as the rule in arithmetic would "do the sum" and "get the answer." [1]

Another testifies that the whole grammar text was committed to memory and recited three times before any of it was applied in parsing sentences. Another testifies that he learned Dilworth's grammar by heart at six. A boy in Princeton in 1799 wrote in a letter that he had committed to memory *verbatim* fifty pages of English grammar. W. B. Fowle (1795) says, " Pupils at our

[1] Lyman, R. L. — *English Grammar in American Schools before 1850*, p. 114.

school were required to learn Bingham's *Young Ladies' Accidence* by heart three times. We were two or three years in grammar." Murray expected his rules to be memorized. To make this easy he was careful to put them into language easily learned. Some grammarians (Brightland and Ward) put their rules into rhymes to make memorizing easy. Others resorted to the method of the catechism, to questions and answers. This method was common in England but was not used in America except as Greenwood's, Dilworth's, Fisher's, Priestly's, and Brightland's grammars were in use in American schools.

The use of parsing and the correction of "false syntax" that followed the extreme vogue of memorizing have already been spoken of. No adequate idea of the extent, the exactness, and the complexity of parsing can be conveyed in a few paragraphs. The student should read Lyman's *English Grammar in America Before 1850*, pages 120–122, and supplement that reading by an examination of a few pages in Fowler, Murray, or Goold Brown (*Grammar of Grammars*) to arrive at some comprehension of the extent and intricacy of that method.

The correcting of false syntax has already been alluded to. The hope of making the language over in accordance with the logical rules laid down by the grammarians did not persist for a long time. Common sense soon taught men and women that the language as it was written by the makers of literature would survive, rather than that dictated by the makers of grammar texts. But for a long time grammars contained lists of faulty "made-up" sentences to be corrected.

Attention has been directed to the attempt to find in English grammar parallels for every item in Latin, such as the five modes, six tenses, and five cases. Ben Jonson, although a Latinist, saw that such an attempt was indefensible, and Priestley, in 1762, made a strong protest against it when he wrote:

> I am surprised to see so much of the distribution, and technical terms of the Latin grammar, retained in the grammar of our tongue; where they are exceedingly awkward, and absolutely superfluous; being such as could not possibly have entered into the head of any man, who had not previously been acquainted with Latin.

In spite of this protest the custom of finding parallels in English for all the items that appear in Latin grammar grew, rather than diminished, and we still have in nearly all the grammars written in the twentieth century the weight of the Latin machinery, not only useless but untrue in our language.

A historical view of the teaching of grammar should preserve us from the error of having in each generation to try out for that generation the materials and methods that have been tried, found wanting, and discarded in the past, or which have been tried, found good in part, and modified to something better for the succeeding generations. We are impatient of the lessons of history. We moderns are inclined to try out everything for ourselves without looking into history to discover whether something that we propose as new has not already been given a century or two of trial, and then discarded. If we are willing to learn anything from the teaching of grammar in the past, we may save ourselves the trouble of teaching grammar as an end in itself, of teaching it by

resorting to memorized rules, of building up an immense weight of parsing machinery, of hoping to arrive at a knowledge of how to speak and write through the minute analysis of sentences, of getting at correct, idiomatic usage through a study of bad English, of trying to shape the course in language by grammar-made rules, and of constructing a make-believe grammar at every point like the grammar of Latin. Some of these items we seem to have learned. Others we have yet to grasp.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

1. Readings.

   Lyman, R. L. — *English Grammar in American Schools before 1850*, Chapters I and II, III and IV, V and VI.

2. Reports.

   A report on the content and treatment of the material in Ben Jonson's grammar, of 1640.

   A report on the treatment of a single subject (for example, the agreement of verb and subject) in Goold Brown's *Grammar of Grammars*.

CHAPTER XVIII

Nouns

The history of English nouns. — In Old English the grammar of nouns was quite complex. There were two declensions, the strong or vowel, and the weak or consonant. But the first of these was subdivided into words of the *o* declension, which were either masculine or neuter, and words of the *a* declension which were feminine. The consonant declension had masculine, feminine, and neuter words. There were nominally six cases for nouns, the nominative, genitive, dative, vocative, instrumental, and accusative, but for most words the nominative, vocative, and accusative were identical. The dative and instrumental were usually the same. There were also three genders and two numbers. The following will illustrate. *Dōm* (*doom*) is a masculine word of the strong *o* declension.

	Old English	*Middle English*	*Modern English*
		SINGULAR	
Nom.	dōm	dōm	doom
Gen.	dōmes	dōmes	doom's
Dat.	dōme	dōm	
Acc.	dōm	dōm	
Voc.	dōm		
Inst.	dōme		

	Old English	*Middle English*	*Modern English*
		PLURAL	
NOM.	dōmas	dōmes	dooms
GEN.	dōma	dōmes	dooms'
DAT.	dōmum	dōmes	
ACC.	dōmas	dōmes	
VOC.	dōmas	dōmes	
INST.	dōmum	dōmes	

Similar dropping of case endings occurred with words belonging to the other declensions until in modern English our nouns are very simple. We have no declensions, no case endings except the *'s* to indicate the possessive form, and no Anglo-Saxon gender endings. The only semblance of a classification of nouns we have left is that which requires us to begin an individual name with a capital letter.

Case. — Instead of the six cases of Anglo-Saxon, modern English has a fragment of one — the genitive. All the relations expressed in the older language by the nominative, dative, accusative, instrumental, and vocative are now expressed by one common form of the noun without any inflectional ending. One of the functions of the old genitive is carried by the prepositional phrase with *of* or by the use of the apostrophe and *s*. There is not enough of the genitive left to justify the teaching of case as applied to nouns at all. Two or three spelling lessons will take care of the matter in the public schools, but there are some interesting bits of history worth while for the college student to follow up.

Possession is indicated in English by the two devices, the preposition *of*, as in *the cover of the box*, and by

the apostrophe and *s*, as in *the carpenter's chisel*. In the plural of nouns ending with *s* this possessive relationship is indicated by the addition of the apostrophe alone, as in *the carpenters' saws and hammers*. In speech this does not show the plural idea, and so for clearness it is turned to the phrase construction, *the saws and hammers of the carpenters*.

Old English strong masculine nouns had *es* for a genitive singular ending. Middle English extended that ending to all its nouns and to the genitive plural as well as to the singular. Then in late Middle English in many words the *es* syllable was reduced to a *z* sound and not pronounced as a separate syllable. Next the apostrophe was inserted to take the place of *e*, which dropped out on account of not being sounded. This mark, however, did not come into general use much before the end of the seventeenth century.[1]

Even in the second half of the nineteenth century it was still customary to write one's name to parallel such old expressions as *the prince his servants*. The student has perhaps seen the owner's name in an old book in the form shown above. He may recall the jingle in Abraham Lincoln's copy book:

> Abraham Lincoln his book and pen,
> He will be good, but God knows when.

The odd expression seems to have come into use on the supposition that the apostrophe in prince's marked the elision of *hi* of the old possessive pronoun *his* instead of the *e* of *es*.

[1] Sweet, Henry — *A Short Historical English Grammar*, p. 81.

The use of the *'s* possessive is confined pretty closely to persons, but there are a few cases where long association justifies the nonpersonal use, such as in *a day's journey, a minute's time, the law's delay, a stone's throw, the journey's end, half a boat's length ahead,* etc. Children must not be taught that these expressions are incorrect, just because they do not conform to the rule. Once again it should be said that rules are made merely to report what the usual custom is, not to regulate usage, not to condemn what has long been standard usage.

Generally one may use either the phrase with *of* or the *'s*; one may say the *boy's ambition* or the *ambition of the boy;* but one may not say *Where is the hat of John.*

The *'s* form may be used without a following noun, as *He looks after his own interests while attending to other people's,* or *He went to the grocer's.*

Such expressions as, *He is a friend of my brother's* and *We saw there a cousin of my mother's* make use of both devices at the same time to denote the possessive. While but one is needed, and but one commonly used, the expression is regularly used by those who set the standards for the language, and is therefore good usage.

Teaching the case of nouns. — There are many facts about the case of nouns of interest to the scholar, but only a few that have any bearing upon the speech and writing of children. What the pupil needs to know is that —

1. The possessive of singular nouns and of plurals not ending in *s* is formed by adding the *'s*; the possessive of plural nouns ending in *s*, by adding the apostrophe only.

boy, boy's, boys'
man, man's, men's
child, child's, children's
horse, horse's, horses'

2. It is customary to add the *'s* to singular nouns ending in *s*, as, *James's*, but there are a few cases of these singular nouns with sibilant endings to which the apostrophe only is attached, as in *for conscience' sake, for righteousness' sake.*

3. The possessive forms are not often used except to denote ownership. That is, the possessive is applied to persons or animals that can own. We say *the lady's cloak, the driver's gloves,* but not *the eggs' price,* nor *the day's heat.* Exception is made, however, of such old expressions as *a stone's throw,* etc. (See page 275.)

4. The prevailing custom is to write *somebody else's,* but the form *somebody's else* is used by a few good writers and speakers. The second form is usually awkward and has a suggestion of pedantry. The first, *somebody else's,* is to be preferred.

The most economical way to teach the forms of the possessive using the *'s* and those using the apostrophe only is by means of a few spelling lessons involving these forms in a variety of ways. There is almost no difficulty in their oral use. Children have merely to be guided to prevent their forming the habit of using the *'s* form where it is not in accord with usage, that is, in constructions where only the prepositional phrase is used.

The gender of nouns. — Old English, like Latin, had what is called " grammatical gender " instead of natural

gender. The form of the word itself determined its gender. Thus *dōm* was a masculine word, *clif* (*cliff*) a neuter, and *lufu* (*love*) a feminine, all of the strong declension. *Oxa* (*ox*), *eare* (*ear*), and *heorte* (*heart*) are respectively masculine, feminine, and neuter of the weak declension. Characteristic endings for the weak declension are *an* for most of the cases and *ena* for the genitive plural. In an earlier chapter you have seen how endings were at first blurred in pronunciation and then dropped entirely. This change, occurring mostly in the Middle English period, left the language with no word-endings to indicate gender. Grammatical gender ceased to be, so far as English is concerned. What there is left in gender refers to sex; that is, natural gender.

Some of the grammars of a generation ago arbitrarily set up four genders — masculine, feminine, neuter, and common — and required in the parsing of nouns that one of the four gender names should be applied to each noun. This was a pure make-believe piece of grammar invented to secure logical completeness in the intellectual exercise of parsing. A tree has no sex; so *tree* was neuter in gender. But a child has sex — this not indicated by the form of the word — so *child* was called a "noun of common gender."

A few nouns in English occur in pairs, one the name of the male and the other of the female, but in these cases the words themselves are different. The gender is not indicated by a special ending for each member of the pair. The frequently used nouns that have one form for the male and another for the female are the following:

MASCULINE	FEMININE	MASCULINE	FEMININE
boy	girl	drake	duck
gentleman	lady	bull	cow
cock	hen	boar	sow
gander	goose	buck	doe
man	woman	male	female
son	daughter	father	mother
nephew	niece	uncle	aunt
king	queen	husband	wife
bachelor	maid	brother	sister
horse	mare	lad	lass

None of these words are formed from the opposite word of the pair. *Woman* seems to be *man* with a prefix *wo*, but it is in fact *wifman* from *wife*. *Female* seems to be *male* with the prefix *fe*. The spelling is due to an error in constructing the word. It has nothing to do with *male* but comes through French *femelle* from the Latin *femella*.

There are no gender endings in English except the *ess* ending borrowed from the French and used with a few masculine words to make them feminine.

baron	baroness	prophet	prophetess
prince	princess	duke	duchess
count	countess	actor	actress
waiter	waitress	hunter	huntress
master	mistress	tiger	tigress
emperor	empress	lion	lioness

One word, *hero*, takes the French ending *-ine* to form a feminine. This is the same ending as the *-ine* in the proper names *Josephine* and *Caroline*. A few words from Latin or other foreign languages keep their foreign gender endings; for example, *executor — executrix*, *sultan — sultana*.

An interesting relic of gender is seen in words ending in *-ster*. In Old English there was an *-ere* masculine ending and an *-estre* feminine. A *sangere* was a male singer. A *sangestre* was a female singer. *Spinner* was masculine, *spinster* feminine. This ending is oddly preserved in the two words *songstress* and *seamstress*. After the *-ster* ending had lost its feminine significance, the new French ending *-ess* was added. Thus these words have two feminine endings. The *-ster* ending is preserved in some proper names. We have *Baker* from *bæcere* (masculine), and *Baxter* from the feminine of the same word, *bæcstre*. *Brewer* is masculine, and *Brewster* feminine. *Webber* or *Weber* is the masculine and *Webster* the woman weaver. Other common nouns having the *-ster* ending have lost their feminine significance. They are *tapster*, *huckster*, *gamester*, *chorister*, and *youngster*.

The gender of nouns is unimportant in English except for one consideration. It is often necessary in sentences to refer to nouns by using personal pronouns. When the antecedent of a personal pronoun is a masculine word, *he*, *his*, or *him* must be used to refer to it. When it is feminine, *she*, *her*, or *hers* is used. Otherwise the neuter *it* or *its* is used. Children studying grammar need to know this fact about the gender of nouns; aside from the distinction in gender indicated by the personal pronouns in the third person, *he*, *she*, and *it*, this is all there is to gender in the English language.

How to teach gender. — The rule of agreement indicated above should be taught in schools not through formal grammar or by presenting the history of the language, but by means of some simple exercises in the

substitution in sentences of appropriate pronouns for nouns. For example:

Inkbottle. —— stands on my table.

Supply the appropriate pronoun in the blank space. Do the same in the following sentences.

Tennyson. —— was an English poet.
Child. What did you do with —— rattle?
Margaret. Where did you see —— Tuesday?
Hen. Are —— chickens all in the box? Is that one near the nest ——?
Tree. New leaves come upon —— branches in the spring.

There are, as has already been seen, a few nouns having distinctive masculine forms and a few having distinctive feminine forms, but none with neuter forms. In teaching the use of nouns to children there is no need to refer to the gender of nouns. It is highly advisable not to teach anything in grammar unless it is useful, unless it serves a purpose. Any item in grammar to justify itself in the elementary school must not only be *true;* it must also serve some *useful* purpose to the pupil. This may well be made a general principle in teaching grammar.

Number. — Number as it applies to modern English nouns is a very simple matter. Most of the old plural endings of the various case forms *-as*, *-a*, *-um*, and *-ena* were reduced to *-es* in the Middle English period, and in modern English to simple *-s* except where the *s* sound must be pronounced as a new syllable to the word, as in *boxes*, *brushes*, and *dishes*. Then the ending is *-es*. A few irregular plurals are still used. The formation of these is shown in the following paragraphs:

1. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant usually change the *y* to *i* and add *-es*. *Party, parties; lady, ladies; city, cities.*
2. Some nouns ending in *-f* or *-fe*, change the *f* to *v* and add *-es*. *Knife, knives; wife, wives; leaf, leaves.* This change does not occur in *cliff, cliffs; staff, staffs* (except the word *staves*, which has a special meaning) ; *roof, roofs;* and some others.
3. The nouns ending in *o* take *-s* or *-es* without any apparent reason to govern the choice. One simply has to learn the spelling of these words. It may help the student to know that the usual form is *s* but that nine words take *-es*. These are *echo, hero, mosquito, negro, no, potato, tornado, tomato,* and *torpedo.* Ten words are spelled either way, but (*flamingo* excepted) with *-es* preferred. These are *calico, cargo, domino, flamingo, volcano, bravado, motto, buffalo, mulatto,* and *grotto.*
4. Some of the old, simple names for common things in Old English made their plurals by vowel change. These keep their old plurals. They are such words as *tooth, teeth; foot, feet; man, men; woman, women; mouse, mice;* and some others.

The regular formation of plurals and these four special classes are all that need to be taught in the schools. Like the possessive forms, the plurals can be taught most economically as spellings. The number of the irregular plurals is so small that they can easily be taught in three or four lessons. Most pupils already know these spellings before they begin to study grammar systematically and so have, at most, but a few of the forms to learn.

In addition to what has already been said about plurals there are a number of items that should interest the teacher and older pupils but that make little difference to children either in speaking or writing. These are —

1. Some singulars ending in *s* have been mistaken for plurals. *Alms* was *ælmesse* in Old English. *To ask an alms* preserves the singular meaning. *Eaves* is singular from the Old English

singular *efese*. We still say, *A summons was issued*. But the other words are now used with plural verbs. *Sixpence* is naturally plural, but now we use it as singular and have made a new plural for it. *Pease* is an old singular, but we have made both a new singular and a new plural for the word, *pea* and *peas*. *News* from the French *nouvelles* is plural in form but regularly used as a singular. *What news has come?*

2. Formerly *-en* plurals were common in English. We had *eyen*, *hosen*, *shoon*, *foon* (*foes*), *been* (*bees*), *toon* (*toes*), *eyren* (*eggs*), *housen*, and others. *Oxen* is the only one remaining in good usage. *Kine* is a special case. The Middle English word *ku* had a plural *ky*. Then an *-en* (*ne*) plural was added making the double plural *kyne* or *kine*. In the same way *brother* had a mutation (vowel change) plural *brether*. The *-en* plural was added to that. *Children* was pluralized in the same way. The Old English word was *cild*, plural *cildru*. This became a dialect plural *childer* and then added the plural ending *-en*.
3. Nouns like *twins*, *scissors*, *gallows*, and *spectacles* are plurals never used as singular.
4. *Mathematics* is used as singular ; *politics*, plural in form, is used as either singular or plural, but the plural use predominates. *Athletics*, plural in form is usually so used. *Phonetics* is used in the same way.
5. Some nouns that have rather recently come into the language from foreign sources have kept their foreign plurals ; but the tendency of these words is to take the regular *-s* or *-es* plural of English as soon as they are thoroughly "naturalized." Where two plurals exist, one will sometimes have one meaning and the other another. *Index* has two such plurals, *indices* and *indexes; genius* has two, *genii* and *geniuses*. *Alumnus*, *beau*, and *phenomenon* have retained their foreign plurals. *Curriculum* has the foreign plural *curricula*, but though this is a comparatively new word in the science of education, its plural is already breaking down in favor of *curriculums*. The *plural* for *datum* is *data*. The singular is never used, and *data* is now sometimes used with the singular verb ; though there is a good deal of objection to *curriculums* as a plural and still more to *data* as a singular.

6. Most compound nouns take the plural sign at the end, but those written with hyphens usually attach the plural ending to the principal word: *major-generals, sons-in-law, brothers-in-law, courts-martial, player-pianos.*
7. Plurals of letters, signs, figures, and words regarded as things are formed by adding *'s*, as in *g's*, &'s, *7's*, *and's.*
8. Some words have but one form to serve as singular or plural: *deer, cattle, sheep.* These are singular in form but when used in a collective sense they take plural verbs. *Deer were seen in the hills. Cattle were pastured.*
9. Collective nouns form their plurals in the usual way by adding *-s* or *-es: herds, flocks, droves, crowds,* etc.

The classification of nouns. — The classification of nouns into *concrete* and *abstract, collective,* and *verbal,* or into *common* and *proper* serves no purpose except to give teachers something to teach and pupils something to study. It is, therefore, not discussed in this chapter. The simple observation that an individual name, to distinguish it from a general or common noun, is written with an initial capital letter is all of value that is left of the old elaborate classification. This capital letter does not depend upon any inherent law in language. It is merely a conventional device used in English. In German all nouns are made prominent by the use of initial capital letters. We choose to make only the individual names thus prominent.

Doubtful textbook grammar. — The grammars have rather strongly insisted that the phrasal genitive with *of,* as in "after the fitful fever of life," rather than the possessive form as in "life's fitful fever," should be used except with reference to living beings. Dr. J. Lesslie Hall [1] reports 87 writers from Sir Thomas Malory to

[1] *English Usage,* p. 202.

Stevenson who have used the *'s* form a total of 700 times in opposition to this rule. He is convincing in his case for the use of the form best suited to the sentence, whether it is in accord with the rule or not. He proposes to substitute for the rule the statement, "The phrasal genitive is used *more* in both prose and poetry, especially in the former [than is the *'s* genitive]."

The retained object has been much opposed. This is illustrated in such a construction as, "She was given a *watch* on her *last birthday*." The objection made by the writers of grammars and by teachers to this construction is that a verb when in the passive voice cannot take an object. Recent scholars, including Marsh, Mätzner, Jespersen, Kittredge, Lounsbury, and Hall, have defended this use and have cited a hundred or more authors of recognized good taste and literary standing who use the construction. The objection to it breaks down before this showing.

The gerund and the possessive noun. — There has been a good deal of dispute among grammarians as to the use of the *'s* with nouns preceding the gerund in sentences like, "Reports of Brown's being elected have reached us." The early grammars (Lowth's, for example) condemned this use. Goold Brown (1851) disapproved it, although it was used by Boswell, Johnson, and Jane Austen before his time and by Dickens and George Eliot of his generation. Recent scholars have been divided in opinion about this construction. Baskervill and Sewell accept both forms; Sweet prefers the common form without the *'s* before names that do not denote animate objects, as in "The game being post-

poned," rather than "The game's being postponed"; Krapp admits both forms; but Carpenter (*Principles of English Grammar*) is positive that "the noun or pronoun must be in the possessive." Jespersen favors the possessive. Kittredge and Farley say the possessive form *may* be used. Hall (*English Usage*) from a wide observation finds both forms in common use for three hundred years and the usage about evenly divided. He points to the absurdity of using the possessive with *this* or *that* in, "Have you ever heard of *this's* being done?" Usage supports both forms, the choice being frequently determined by appropriateness of sound.

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5. Leonard, Mary Hall — *Grammar and Its Reasons*, pp. 70–96.
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CHAPTER XIX

Adjectives

Definition. — Adjectives are regularly used as adjuncts to modify nouns or in the predicate position to modify either nouns or pronouns. Since an adjective is a modifier of nouns, it is apparent that we make an adjective out of any part of speech that we use to modify a noun. Nouns are regularly used as adjectives; for example, *hose cart, house rent, water colors.* Most of the numerals are used as adjectives; for example, *seven trees, the seventh page.* The possessive case forms of nouns and of personal, relative, and interrogative pronouns are so used; for example, *John's coat; their roses; I sent for the boy whose books were on the table; Whose books are these?*

The adjective in Old English. — As has already been noted in the chapters on the development of the language, Old English, like the other Teutonic languages, had two declensions of adjectives: the strong declension, used when the adjective occurred in the predicate relation in the sentence; and the weak declension, used when the adjective served as an attribute after the article, or when it was used as a noun. These two declensions ran through the six cases, three genders, and two numbers, making a choice of an appropriate adjective for a sentence as difficult in Old English as it still is

in German. A person learning the language had first to decide which declension should be used, then which gender, then which number, then which case. There were four chances of getting the wrong inflectional form, and judging from experience with the German definite article and adjectives, the wrong form was probably chosen two or three times out of the four chances. The adjective *gōd*, meaning *good*, had the following forms: *gōd*, *gōda*, *gōdes*, *gōdum*, *gōdne*, *gōde*, *gōdre*, *gōdra*, *gōdan*, and *gōdena* scattered through the declensions, genders, numbers, and cases.

By the year 1200 this elaborate construction had given way to two forms. *Gōd* was used except for the dative singular and the plurals. In those relations *gōde* was used. Modern English has indicated the long quantity of the vowel of *gōd* by doubling it instead of using the bar over it, and has dropped the *e* ending altogether, leaving one simple adjective form for all possible uses. We still retain a remnant of a French *s* genitive ending in such archaic expressions as *knights templars*, *lords lieutenants*, and *lords justices*. The *-s* here is usually assumed to be a plural rather than an adjective ending. When adjectives are used as nouns, they regularly take the plural ending, as in *elders*, *betters*, and *vegetables*.

The indefinite article *a* before consonant sounds and *an* before vowels comes from the Old English numeral *an* meaning *one*. The definite article *the* is from the Old English demonstrative pronoun which has the forms *sē*, *sēo*, *ðæt* in the masculine, feminine, and neuter nominatives. In Middle English these forms became: *thē*, *thēo*, and *that*. *The* is thus developed from *sē*.

Comparison of adjectives in historic grammar. — The comparison of adjectives is not peculiar to English. Inflectional endings for comparison are common in the Indo-European languages. They occur in Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit, as well as in the Teutonic group. The Old English endings were *-ra* and *-ost*, as in *heard* (*hard*), *heardra* (*harder*), *heardost* (*hardest*). Middle English vowel change brought these endings to *-re* and *-est*, as in *hard, hardre, hardest.* Then the final *e* was dropped and the *r* sound represented by *er*. This brings us to the modern English *-er* and *-est*, which were already in use in Chaucer's time. The *most* in *foremost* and similar words ending with *most* represents a double superlative. The Old English word for *first* is *forma.* To it was added *-est* making *forma-est*, written in modern English as *foremost*, meaning literally the *most first.* Similarly the superlatives *hindmost, inmost, outmost*, and *utmost* were evolved. Both *utter* and *further* are already comparatives, but on the analogy of *utmost* and *foremost* these comparatives were made superlatives as *uttermost* and *furthermost*, and later the new double comparative *furthermore* was made.

The present comparison of adjectives. — Only adjectives denoting quality and quantity or condition are compared.

Adjectives of one syllable are regularly compared by adding *-er* and *-est* to the simple form.

Adjectives of two syllables usually take the endings *-er* and *-est*, or they may be preceded by the adverbs *more* and *most.* To indicate the opposite idea *less* and *least* are used. We say —

intense	intenser	intensest
intense	more intense	most intense
intense	less intense	least intense
feeble	feebler	feeblest
feeble	more feeble	most feeble
feeble	less feeble	least feeble

Words of three or more syllables usually take the adverbs *more* and *most* and, for the opposite, always *less* and *least.*

contented	more contented	most contented
contented	less contented	least contented

Adjectives of two syllables ending in *-ful* regularly take *more* and *most* or *less* and *least.* The *-er* and *-est* syllables make awkward words. Hence, we avoid *carefuller* and *carefullest, joyfuller* and *joyfullest.*

The comparison of adjectives is so flexible that exceptions may be found to most of the preceding statements.

A few adjectives have irregular comparison. We say —

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
near, nigh	nearer	nearest or next
far	farther, further	farthest, furthest
much, many	more	most
bad, ill	worse	worst
good	better	best
late	later, latter	latest, last
little	less	least

The history of these irregular comparisons is interesting but cannot be gone into here.

A common error in the use of comparison by school children is *all the farther* or *all the further* instead of *as far as.* "This is *all the farther* the lesson goes to-day," instead of "This is *as far as* the lesson goes."

A few adjectives, like *square, round, perfect, straight, complete, white,* and *black,* cannot in strict logic be compared. If a thing is perfect, something else cannot be most perfect. In actual practice we do compare these words, and the usage has the sanction of the best writers and speakers. Everybody compares them in colloquial speech. Of course, we mean *more nearly perfect, most nearly circular,* etc. A few of these words, however, are not compared. Comparison would be ludicrous in such expressions as *most vertical, more equal, more infinite, more daily,* etc.

Teaching the adjective. — So far as usage is concerned, the only teaching problem in connection with adjectives is that of comparison. The pupil should be made familiar with the ordinary applications of *-er, -est, more* and *most, less* and *least,* and then should be given practice over and over in using the forms correctly in sentences.

Doubtful distinctions. — Some teachers and grammarians make a distinction between the use of *farther* and *further* to the effect that *farther* applies to actual physical distance, while *further* is used in reference to time, quantity, or degree.

> He was on the farther shore.
> We went on without further delay.

Usage does not support this distinction. The two forms seem to be used interchangeably.

Double comparatives and superlatives, while still occasionally used, are less frequent than formerly. Shakespeare's "Most unkindest cut of all" is known generally.

His use of the double comparative, "How much more elder art thou than thy looks," is not so well remembered.

After a long fight with the grammarians for a place among the adjectives, *reliable* with the significance of *trustworthy* has won.[1]

Talented, like *reliable*, has, after some delay, been admitted into the good society of adjectives.[2]

Many persons who affect niceness in writing and speaking say *such an one* rather than *such a one*. While that form has the sanction of three hundred years or more, the other, *such a one*, has been used alongside it during all those years. Both are still accepted and regularly used, but *such a one* seems to be used more frequently by standard writers both in England and America.

The word *cultured*, used as an adjective meaning *cultivated* or *refined*, has been objected to, but the objection is not sustained by the test of good usage. Browning says: "But his interest in these studies was not that of the ordinary cultured visitor to the Italian cities." Hall[3] refers to uses by fourteen writers, including W. D. Whitney, Herbert Spencer, Frederic Harrison, Richard Grant White, G. K. Chesterton, Henry Drummond, and Edward Dowden.

Must *either* be limited to two? W. D. Whitney says,[4] "*either* of the last three syllables," "either of the four languages." Poe used *either* in referring to four, and *neither* in referring to six or seven. Hall quotes eight reputable writers who use *either* to refer to more than two.

[1] See authorities cited by Hall, J. L. — *English Usage*, pp. 239–242.
[2] Hall, J. L. — *English Usage*, pp. 286–287.
[3] *English Usage*, p. 66.
[4] *English Usage*, p. 86.

The first two or *the two first* — which is better? Hall [1] cites many authors to support each of these constructions. One is perfectly sure of authoritative sanction no matter which of the two he uses.

The word *implicit* should, in use, bear some relation to *implied*. It should mean, and does so in many connections, *in folded* as in contrast to *explicit;* but it has been so much used to mean *unquestioning*, that that is recognized by the dictionaries as one of its regular meanings.

The word *lengthy*, though opposed by some grammarians and rhetoricians, has the authority of good usage behind it.

Shall we use *plenty* for *plentiful?* Falstaff says, "If reasons were as *plenty* as blackberries, I would give no man reason on compulsion." There are a few examples scattered through literature, but they are so scarce in recent writing that it seems inadvisable to use *plenty* except as a noun.

The use of adjectives. — There are many adjectives of rather vague meaning that express not so much objective qualities as the subjective impression that objects give to the observer's mind. Such adjectives as *nice, elegant, quaint, refined, coarse, splendid, beautiful*, and *horrid* belong to this class. These adjectives, owing to their lack of definiteness, are put to many uses — far too many. They are conventional in application, and sometimes change their significance somewhat from one generation to another.

On account of the difficulties already mentioned and

[1] *English Usage*, p. 104.

for other reasons, the *rhetoric* of adjectives is an important and difficult subject. The *grammar* is comparatively simple.

Both care and economy should be exercised in the use of adjectives.

Precision and propriety of style depend very much upon the writer's choice of adjective terms. An abundant vocabulary of adjectives to choose from is a part of a good writer's stock in trade. The free command of such a vocabulary, with good taste and careful observation and a desire to tell the truth, will enable a writer to add much strength and beauty to style through his appropriate use of adjective terms.[1]

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

1. A special report on the origin of the English numerals would be interesting. The limits of space do not permit a full development of the subject in this chapter. Materials for the report can be found in —

   Emerson, O. F. — *A History of the English Language*, pp. 313–318.

   Sweet, Henry — *A Short Historical English Grammar*, pp. 123–128.

2. Other readings —

   Kellner, Leon — *Historical Outlines of English Syntax*, pp. 136–167.

   Leonard, Mary Hall — *Grammar and Its Reasons*. "Adjectives," pp. 124–125; "The Article," pp. 126–129.

   Sweet, Henry — *New English Grammar*, Part II, pp. 68–70 (on the uses of *old, older, oldest; elder* and *eldest*).

[1] Leonard — *Grammar and Its Reasons.*

CHAPTER XX

Pronouns

Definition. — The *noun* is the naming word that, either alone or as the principal word in a word-group, may be the subject of a verb. The name *pronoun* is given to any word that may take the place of a noun. These words are so different in kind one from another that they are divided into five groups so that they may be more intelligently studied than would be possible otherwise. These groups are the personal pronouns, the relative, the interrogative, the demonstrative, and the large group of odds and ends called the indefinite pronouns. The pronouns, although greatly changed in form, have preserved the inflections of Old English more nearly than any other of the English parts of speech.

The personal pronouns. — The pronouns *I*, *thou*, *you*, *he*, *she*, and *it* show by their forms whether they refer to the speaker, the person or thing spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of. On this account, and not because they refer to persons, they are called *personal pronouns*. The neuter *it* is just as much a *personal* pronoun as the others, but it does not refer to persons.

Since the old inflections are fairly well preserved in the personal pronouns, it may be interesting to show the old forms beside the modern for one or two of them. The forms of the first and second personal pronouns are

shown below in columns parallel with the corresponding modern forms.

FIRST PERSON

SINGULAR NUMBER

Old English	*Middle English*	*Modern English*
NOM. ic, īc	īk, i	NOM. I
GEN. min	(mīn)	POSS. my, mine
DAT. me, mē	me	— —
INST. me, mē	—	— —
ACC. mec, me, mē	me	OBJ. me

DUAL NUMBER

Old English	*Middle English*	*Modern English*
NOM. wit, wīt	—	NOM. —
GEN. uncer	—	POSS. —
DAT. unc	—	— —
INST. unc	—	— —
ACC. uncit, unc	—	OBJ. —

PLURAL NUMBER

Old English	*Middle English*	*Modern English*
NOM. we, wē	wē	NOM. we
GEN. ūser, ūre	(ūre)	POSS. our, ours
DAT. ūs	ūs	— —
INST. ūs	—	— —
ACC. ūs, ūsic	ūs	OBJ. us

The dual number, signifying two persons, does not appear in Middle English after the thirteenth century nor anywhere in modern English. The second personal pronoun shows *ðu*, *ðin*, and *ðe* (*thou*, *thine*, and *thee*) in the singular number and the beginnings of *ye*, *your*, and *you* in the plural forms *ge*, *ēower*, and *ēow*.

How does it happen that we use the plurals *ye* and *you* in speaking to one person where one would expect the

Old English singular *ðu* (*thou*)? In the Middle English period, probably following the custom of the French, the plurals *ye* and *you* in ceremonious speech began to be used instead of the singular. The singular is not used in modern German except in addressing relatives or intimate friends. Even in Shakespeare's time there was a feeling that one was taking liberties who addressed one who was not an intimate as *thou*. Sir Toby Belch advises Sir Andrew, who wishes to anger his rival, that it would be well "if thou *thoust* him some thrice."

You was the accusative plural while *ye* was the nominative plural. These were confused in early modern English, until finally *ye* dropped out of use altogether except in poetry and liturgy. We now have two distinct sets of forms for the second personal pronoun, the one used in common speech, the other in poetic or solemn language.

SINGULAR			
Nom.	you	Nom.	thou
Poss.	your, yours	Poss.	thy, thine
Obj.	you	Obj.	thee
PLURAL			
Nom.	you	Nom.	ye
Poss.	your, yours	Poss.	your, yours
Obj.	you	Obj.	you

Instead of taking the plural objective and applying it in all cases, the Society of Friends (Quakers) have taken the objective singular *thee* to serve for all forms.

The Old English third personal pronoun makes a very interesting comparison with the modern *he*, *she*, and *it*.

SINGULAR

	Old English	*Modern English*		*Old English*	*Modern English*
	Masculine			*Feminine*	
Nom.	he, hē	he	Nom.	hēo, hīe, hī	she
Gen.	his	his	Gen.	hiere, hire	her, hers
Dat.	him	—	Dat.	hiere, hire	—
Acc.	hine	him	Acc.	hīe, hī, hēo	her

	Old English	*Modern English*
	Neuter	
Nom.	hit	it
Gen.	his	its
Dat.	him	—
Acc.	hit	it

PLURAL

	Old English	*Modern English*
Nom.	hīe, hēo, hī	they
Gen.	hīera, hira, heora	their, theirs
Dat.	him, heom	—
Acc.	hīe, hēo, hī	them

As in modern English, the plural did not vary for the three genders. *Hit* is still used instead of *it* in some sections of the southern mountains; and we read in the Authorized Version of the Bible, 1611, "Every tree bringeth forth fruit after *his* kind." *His* was the genitive singular of the neuter pronoun. *It* comes by dropping the *h* from *hit;* and *its*, the latest of the changes, was created after the pattern of the other *-s* genitives, *his* and *hers*. This was a doubtful new word as late as sixteen hundred. Shakespeare used it only ten times, and the translators of the Bible of 1611 avoided it altogether, substituting *his* or *thereof*. Milton used it very little.

None of the Old English forms shown above could have been the source of modern *she*. This came from the feminine demonstrative pronoun *seo*. By 1150 this had taken the place of the old *hēo*, or *hīe*, or *hī;* and by 1400, Chaucer's time, the word was regularly used in the form *shee* or *she*.

They seems to have been made from the Norse *ðeir* by dropping the *r*, while *their* came from the Norse form *ðeira*. The objective plural *them* came, it seems fairly probable, from *ðœm* (pronounced *tham*), the Old English masculine or neuter demonstrative pronoun in the dative case. This demonstrative pronoun is still heard in dialectal English as in *them apples, them boys;* and in some sections of the United States it is pronounced *tham*. The contraction *'em* is more likely a contraction inherited generation after generation from *hem*, the Middle English form of *heom*, than a contraction of *them*.

The uses of pronouns. — If one were willing to repeat the noun over and over in a sentence, he could manage to make himself understood without using pronouns at all. One could say:

Harvey went into Harvey's brother's store yesterday to buy Harvey a straw hat to wear through the warm months Harvey knew would follow the months of the delightful spring season.

Notice how direct and simple the same sentence is when one has pronouns of various kinds at hand with which to avoid repetitions of the boy's name, and to avoid circumlocutions in other places.

Harvey went into his brother's store yesterday to buy himself a straw hat to wear through the warm months that he knew would follow those of the delightful spring season.

Uses of personal pronouns. — It is customary at present to say *you were*, and not *you was*. This is grammatical recognition of the fact that *you* was once only a plural. Two centuries ago, when the plural form was not quite secure in its place both as singular and plural, there was a good deal of uncertainty about the verb. *You was* was very frequently heard in colloquial speech and not infrequently seen in literature. Now *were* and *have* and plural verbs generally are used with *you* when it is either singular or plural.

The forms *mine* and *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs*, are used in the predicate position; as in *this is mine* or *it is ours* and not as adjective modifiers preceding nouns. "*Mine eyes have seen the glory*," is poetic, and not the common use. *Mine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs* are also used in prepositional phrases; as, *of mine* and *of hers* in —

This book is one of mine.
This book is one of hers.

Pronouns agree with their antecedents in number and gender.

The girls forgot *their* books.
Mary forgot *her* book.
The tree sheds *its* leaves.
The *boy* has *his* coat.
He did not forget *it*.

In the last sentence the antecedent of *he* is *boy* or *man*, and the antecedent of *it* is *coat*, or some noun in the neuter gender. These are understood to have been expressed in a preceding sentence.

English is in need of a singular pronoun to follow an antecedent that may be either masculine or feminine

at the same time. Attention was called to this in an earlier chapter. It is probable that the solution of the difficulty will come through the adoption of *they* and *their* as both singular and plural just as has been done with *you*. If usage comes to sanction that arrangement (it has already gone far to do so in England [1] and colloquially in America), we shall be writing as literary English, "Every man and woman present contributed what *they* could." "Let each boy or girl try to remember to bring *their* pencils." At present the literary custom in America is to use *his*, or to avoid a choice altogether, as in, "Let each boy or girl bring a pencil, or pencils." A real need for exactness and smoothness arises so frequently that in time some grammatically illogical form will be settled upon. Whatever it is will then be *good* English, just as "Mary, *you were* expected an hour ago" is now *good* English in spite of the plural pronoun and the plural verb after the singular noun.

The "-self" forms of the personal pronouns. — *Self* was originally an adjective, but in Middle English it took on the nounal meaning that it now has in its use in philosophy; for example, "The *self* must be permitted expression." Then it acquired a plural, *selves*. This word is combined with the possessive forms of the personal pronouns, *my*, *our*, *your*, *it*, and *her* and with the objective forms, *him* and *them*, to make what are sometimes called the compound personal pronouns or reflexive pronouns *myself*, *herself*, *itself*, *ourselves*, *yourself*, *yourselves*, *himself*, and *themselves*, and the formal singular *ourself* of royalty. There is no point to giving these a

[1] Sweet, Henry — *New English Grammar*, Part II, p. 72.

name or classification when teaching them to children. All that the child needs to know is that the forms *hisself* and *theirselves* are not accepted usage, although we may say *his own self*, and *their very selves*. That is, we use *his* correctly with *self* when we put an adjective like *own*, *very*, *true*, *best*, or *worst* between the pronoun and *self*. In those cases *self* is a noun.

Myself is frequently used as a subject of a verb by those who have been taught that *I* is egotistic. The egotism is not in the word but in the manner. *I* is the regular pronoun of the first person, and should regularly be used as subject. If either is likely to be too emphatic and thus seem egotistic, it is *myself*.

While we have not kept a distinction between singular and plural uses of *you*, we have that distinction between *yourself* and *yourselves*.

The provincial forms *hisn*, *hern*, *ourn*, and *theirn* are made on the analogy of *mine* and *thine*, and are not in good usage.

A common mistake of school children is to assume that *its*, like the possessives of nouns, should be written with the apostrophe, as *it's*. This comes from the writing of contractions, such as *that's mine* and *it's yours*. The contraction of *it is* (*it's*) is assumed to be the same as the possessive *its*. The difference in meaning should be emphasized. Some children use the apostrophe with *hers* (*her's*) also.

Teachers fail to understand the apparent perversity with which school children cling to *It is me*, *It is her*, *It is him*, and *It is them*. Krapp [1] explains the attractive-

[1] *Modern English*, p. 301.

ness of these forms on the principle of the word order in sentences, which is most commonly subject, verb, and object; that is, nominative, then verb, then objective. He concludes thus: "*It is me* has won its way into good colloquial speech." "The others," he says, "have perhaps not been quite so successful."

Hall [1] in a very careful study of the use of *me* after the verb concludes that *me* is the natural form to use and would be generally so spoken and written if the grammars and school masters had not interfered with it. Among other examples he quotes Shelley's well-known "Be thou *me*, impetuous one." Rossetti in *Stratton Water* says, "In God's name, Janet, is it me thy ghost has come to seek?" Stevenson in *Treasure Island* writes, "But Silver, from the other boat, looked sharply over and called out to know if it were *me*." Emerson says, "I am my brother, and my brother is *me*"; and Alice Cary, "Once when we lingered, sorrow-proof, my gentle love and *me*." Hall also cites, in this connection, Shakespeare, Goldsmith, Gray, Barrie, Browning, Whittier, and Kipling. Authorities who defend it as good colloquial, or good literary, usage are Hall, Earl, Lounsbury, Latham, Alford, Kellner, Ellis, Sweet, and O. F. Emerson. Jespersen, Quackenbos, Hill, and Nesfield advise against using it. All advise against using *him*, *her*, and *them* after verbs requiring the nominative, on the ground that custom does not sanction the use as it does the use of *me*.

Hall also shows that *as me* has been used by Scott, Shakespeare, Steele, and Kingsley; and that *than me*

[1] *English Usage*, p. 153.

was used by Shakespeare, Swift, Pope, Southey, and Clough. Those who contend for the colloquial use of *It is me* say that this phrase used in answering such a question as *Who's there?* has an air of friendly familiarity. *It is I* is too dignified, too grammatical, to seem intimate. While *It is me* and similar uses of *me* are seen in good literature, and may in time become the customary usage, they have hardly reached a point yet which would justify a student in adopting them in formal writing.

Students are nearly always shocked when they read in Browning's *My Last Duchess* the statement "None puts by the curtain I have drawn for you, but I." Some remember also Mrs. Hemans' "Whence all but *he* had fled." On the use of a nominative after the preposition *but* (meaning *except*) Hall [1] cites twenty-nine authorities including Chaucer, the Bible, Shakespeare (fifteen cases), Milton, Pope, Addison, Swinburne, Rossetti, Browning (four cases), Dickens, De Quincey, and Cardinal Newman. Hall concludes, "While the grammarians are not able to solve the question of syntax and though *but* + objective is more usual than *but* + nominative, we have nevertheless good authority for using *but* with a nominative pronoun."

The inclination of the author of this book is always to accept any usage that can be justified by its frequent appearance in good literature. He would therefore accept *who* as an objective in spoken English but not in formal, written English. *It is me*, *than me*, and *as me* would be accepted in the same way. Teachers are obliged, however, to make their speech conform somewhat to the

[1] *English Usage*, p. 44.

language that in their community is supposed to be standard. They must be somewhat more conservative than others need to be. School patrons, who themselves use very bad English, entirely out of harmony with the best usage, condemn the teacher who splits an infinitive or puts a preposition at the end of a sentence — both in perfect harmony with the best usage, as are the above uses of *who*, *I*, and *me*.

Teachers must remember that one's education and culture, in the popular mind, are judged by his ability to spell well, by the avoidance of *ain't*, by the correct use of pronoun forms, and by the agreement of verb and subject in sentences. There are more important matters in language than these, but these are obvious and so become the signs of cultivation or the lack of it to those who judge superficially. On this account, as well as on account of their real significance, it is important that school children should be taught to avoid unconventional uses of the personal pronouns. Here rules do not help much. Habits must be fixed. Correct use must be made automatic. The only way to do this is by having the children who make mistakes in the use of personal pronouns use these over and over in well-planned groups of sentences until they use the right form in a given construction instantly without having to think *why* or to recall a rule. Children who habitually use their pronouns without error should be spared the drill through which the others must go.

The relative pronouns. — *Who*, *which*, and *that*,[1] when

[1] Following Emerson, O. F. — *History of the English Language*, p. 337, the author is treating *what* as an indefinite or interrogative pronoun on the ground that the attempt to make it a relative equivalent to *that which* is a logical, and not a grammatical, explanation.

they are used as conjunctions to connect the subordinate clauses in which they stand to their antecedents in the independent clauses, are called relative or conjunctive pronouns.

Old English did not have relative pronouns. *That* (þæt) was a demonstrative but was used in the relations requiring a relative, and has come down as both relative and demonstrative in modern English. Indeed *that* is the only relative pronoun heard, to any great extent, in ordinary, everyday speech. *Who* and *which* are used in common conversation as interrogatives, but seldom as relatives. Emerson [1] is authority for the opinion that the relatives *who* and *which* came from the Old English indefinite pronouns *hwa*, and *hwelc* or *hwilc*. *Which* used as a relative is apparently the older, as is seen in the Authorized Version of the Bible, 1611, "Our Father which art in heaven." Later *who* supplanted *which* as a relative referring to persons. None of these three words has person, number, or gender. Since *which* seldom refers to persons, and *what* as a relative never does, one might call them neuter words. But there is no need to multiply useless terms. *Who* now always refers to persons both as a relative and as an interrogative, but when *who* first came into use, both *who* and *which* were used indiscriminately to refer to either persons or things. One who does not know such facts is likely to assume that Chaucer, Shakespeare, and the translators of the Authorized Version of the Bible used poor English, that they did not know the conventional speech of their day when they used these words

[1] Following Emerson, O. F. — *History of the English Language*, p. 336.

and other forms in ways different from those now customary. They forget that grammar has changed with the centuries.

When a possessive is needed for *which,* the word *whose* (the possessive form of *who*) is commonly employed, as in " The glorious elevations on *whose* tops the sun kindles harmonies of light." There has been a doubt about the use of *whose* as a possessive referring to a neuter antecedent or to inanimate objects. Hill[1] states that good writers generally use *of which.* Sweet uses *whose* with hesitation. Hall (*English Usage*, pp. 320–327) cites 140 authors using the construction a total of 1050 times. The citations include the best writers from the fifteenth century to the present. There has not been a time in the modern English period when this form was not freely used. No one needs to use *whose* instead of the phrase *of which* " with hesitation." It is as good as the other and usually less cumbersome in the sentence. " The tree whose leaves are falling " is certainly preferable to the heavy construction, " The tree the leaves of which are falling."

Attention was called in an earlier chapter to the tendency to simplify or drop inflections. Reference was made at that time to the passing of *whom.* In common speech *whom* is almost never heard except in sentences beginning with a preposition, " Of whom were you speaking," " By whom was that done," etc. No one would begin or could begin such sentences with *of who* or *by who.* The speaker who is unaccustomed to *whom* would avoid the construction and use *who* with the preposition at the end of the sentence. Sweet says, " In present

[1] Hill, A. S. — *The Foundations of Rhetoric.*

spoken English, *whom* may be said to be extinct except in the rare construction with a preposition before it. A few authorities caution against the use of *who* for *whom*, but most of them recognize the fact that *who* has always been used in speech as an objective, and in writing too, though not so commonly. One who finds himself in speech to be using *who* as an objective need not be at all embarrassed. He is in the best of literary company. He should, however, make it a practice to use *whom* in the objective in writing even though occasionally the best writers use *who*."

The relative pronoun in restrictive and non-restrictive clauses. — Those relative clauses that restrict or narrow the application or meaning of the nouns they modify are called *restrictive*. Those that merely supply additional information or facts are called *non-restrictive* or *coördinating* clauses. The non-restrictive clause is regularly set off from the rest of the sentence by commas as if it were parenthetical, while commas are not used with the restrictive clause.

Restrictive. These are the apples that grew on this tree.

Non-restrictive. The governor, whose home is in the country, lives in the capital city now.

Non-restrictive. "Smote the chord of self, that, trembling, pass'd in music out of sight." TENNYSON

Most of the grammarians and rhetoricians have advised using *that* in restrictive clauses. Hall cites 115 authorities in 1100 passages extending through 400 years, to show that *that* is also regularly used in non-restrictive clauses along with *who* and *which*. In the light of his investigation one may safely advise the stu-

dent to choose *that, who, whose,* or *which* for these non-restrictive relative clauses according to the demands of the sentence for euphony and clearness of meaning.

It has also been said that the relative *that* must not be used before a pause, as in, " habits that, far from eclipsing any mental talent, make all the writer's gifts more assured," etc. Again the custom of the writers contradicts the rules of the grammars. The quotation from Tennyson on page 307 contradicts this rule.

Compound relative pronouns. — *Who* and *what* are compounded with *ever* and *soever* to make the words *whoever, whosoever, whomever, whomsoever, whatever,* and *whatsoever.* The *soever* form is the older of the two. These words are used like the other relative pronouns as conjunction and pronoun in one word. One question in the choice of form to be used in a sentence needs some attention. Where a clause beginning with *whoever* or *whomever* is the object of a verb or follows a preposition, one is sometimes in doubt which form to use. " The commission was offered to *whoever* (or *whomever*) would accept it." " The President appointed *whoever* (or *whomever*) seemed fit for the place." The relative has apparently a double function as object of a verb or preposition (a relation requiring the objective case), and as subject of a clause, requiring the nominative. Some grammarians say that its most immediate relation is the objective one; others that the whole clause is the object and therefore that the relative pronoun should appear only as a nominative subject of the verb; still others advise avoiding the difficulty by using the phrase *anyone who* instead of *whoever.* To avoid the question one may

say *anyone who*, or else rely upon the logic of the situation; that is, since the whole clause is the object, *whoever*, as subject, should be in the nominative case.

In such a sentence as *I will go with whomever I like*, there is no possibility of confusion. The *whomever* follows a preposition and is the object of *like*. Both constructions require *whomever*.

The interrogatives. — The pronouns *who, which,* and *what* are used in asking questions. They have but one function in the sentence and so cannot cause any such questions as those discussed under the relatives. *Who* refers to persons; *which* refers to persons or things as, "Who did this?" "Which of the two did this?" and "Which is his hat?" *What* refers to things.

The history of interrogatives is simple. *Who, whose,* and *whom* come from the Old English *hwa, hwæs,* and *hwæm* or *hwām*. *What* comes from *hwæt, hwæs, hwæm,* or *hwām*. It will be seen that the possessive and objective forms *whose* and *whom* in Old English belonged as much to *what* as to *who*. *Which* came from *hwelc* or *hwilc,* equal to *hwā-līc,* meaning *who like*. The Old English has another interrogative, *hwæðer,* which was used in early modern English, as in "*Whether* of them twain did the will of his father?" This is not now used except as an adverb.

Which and *what* are also used as interrogative adjectives. There is no difference in their uses as adjectives and as pronouns except that the adjective precedes a noun, and the pronoun is used alone. Both *which* and *what* as adjectives may refer to either persons or things; for example, *which boy, which train, what lesson, what officer*.

The present demonstratives. — The demonstratives in English are used, either standing alone as pronouns, or in the company of nouns as demonstrative adjectives. There are only two in common use. They are *this* with its plural *these*, and *that* with its plural *those*. *Yon* is still used occasionally as a demonstrative adjective, as in " yon high eastward hill."

The history of the demonstratives. — The history of the development of the four forms of the two demonstrative pronouns from the Old English, through Middle English, and into modern English is quite complex. Anyone who cares to follow it through all its steps can find the story in Sweet's *Short Historical Grammar*, pages 112 to 115, or in Emerson's *History of the English Language*, pages 330 to 333. For our purposes a brief summary will be sufficient. In Old English there were two demonstratives, *se* and *þes*, each declined through three genders, five cases, and two numbers, giving a dozen forms for each. All of these forms began with *þ* except the nominative feminine singular *seo*. We have already seen how the pronoun *she* was developed from the demonstrative feminine *seo* and the definite article *the* from *sē*. Since only two of the forms of these pronouns began with *s* and all the others with *th*, these two, *sē* and *seō*, in Middle English were changed to conform with the others giving *þe* (*the*) and *þeo* (*theo*); *þat* (*that*) was already one of the regular Old English forms of the pronoun.

This came from the neuter singular *þis* of the word *þes*.

That came from the neuter singular *þæt* of the word *sē*.

These came from the plural *ðas* of the word *sē*, at first

used in Middle English as *thōs* but later changed for another form in common use, *thēs*, or *thise*.

Those came from the plural *þa* of the Old English *sē*, at first changed to *thō* in Middle English and then taking on an *-s* plural like many other of the plurals.

Use of the demonstratives. — *This* and its plural *these* are used to point out an object or objects relatively near at hand; *that* and its plural *those* to point out an object or objects relatively farther away. *That* and *those* may also be used to call attention to nouns that have been used in an earlier part of the sentence in which the demonstrative occurs.

The length of a straight line between two points is less than *that* of any curved line between those points.

The mountains of Alaska are higher than *those* of California.

The demonstrative pronouns in these sentences make it unnecessary to repeat the nouns.

The indefinite pronouns. — Various names have been given to a large group of loosely related words that are by nature part noun, part pronoun, and part adjective. They have been called "adjective pronouns," "pronominal adjectives," and "indefinite pronouns." One name seems about as good as another, for no one name fully characterizes all the words. A partial justification for calling them indefinite pronouns lies in the fact that they usually refer to general, unexpressed antecedents. Many of them may be used either as adjectives or as pronouns, and some are really nouns in certain uses. *None* is such a word. The noun nature of these words is shown by the use of the *'s* possessive and the *-s* plural for several of them; for example, *one's, anybody's, other's.*

The indefinite pronouns are *all, each, either, neither, some, any, what, many, few, both, one, none, aught, naught, someone, something, somebody, anyone, anything, anybody, everyone, everything, everybody, nothing, nobody, somewhat, such, other, each other, one another, same,* and *several.*

The indefinite pronouns and usage. — *None,* originally Old English *ne an* (*no one*), logically should be singular. But derivation and logic do not settle the matter. Where it clearly means *no one,* writers use the singular. In other cases the plural is used. In the past two hundred years [1] plural verbs have been used with *none* somewhat more frequently than singular.

None are to be admitted without tickets.
None is responsible except him alone.

All is treated in the same way as *none.*

All was done that would be thought of.
All were welcomed very cordially.

Another question arises concerning the use of *all.* May one say, "All this is perfectly clear," or must one use a preposition, "All of this was made perfectly clear"? Again the answer is *both.* Either arrangement has the sanction of good usage. The former has the advantage of brevity. *All* may be used alone as well as with a noun.

All was finished before noon.

One hears in common speech *these kind, those kind, these sort,* and *those sort.* The form should be *this* or *that kind* or *sort.* Literary usage does not sanction the use of the

[1] See Hall, J. L. — *English Usage,* pp. 177–180, for authorities and records of usage in literature.

plurals *these* and *those* with the singulars *sort* and *kind*, since both words have plurals *kinds* and *sorts*.

Should *one* be followed by *one* or by a personal pronoun? Many writers on English usage caution against such sentences as *One must be careful of his clothes.* They say that the possessive *one's* must follow the subject *one*. Fowler, in *The King's English*, says that *one* must always be followed by *one* or *one's*, never by *his* or *their*. He then quotes several examples from the *London Times* and from Lowell in which the form *his* is used. Kittredge and Farley (*Advanced English Grammar*) oppose *his* or *their*. Krapp (*Modern English*, page 319) is emphatically opposed to the restriction. He says —

> By the rule the following sentence would be very elegant English : "If one should do that, one would soon find out that one's reputation would suffer." In natural usage, however, *one* may be and is referred to by *he*, and in the possessive by *his*.

The author of this book concurs with Professor Krapp on this point.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

1. The Definite and Indefinite Article.
   Leonard, Mary Hall — *Grammar and Its Reasons*, pp. 126–129.
   Sweet, Henry — *New English Grammar*, Part II, pp. 54–65.
2. *That* as a Relative Pronoun.
   Hall, J. Lesslie — *English Usage*, pp. 235–239 and pp. 296–303.
3. *Who, Whose*, and *Whom*.
   Hall, J. Lesslie — *English Usage*, pp. 317–327.

CHAPTER XXI

Verbs

The office of the verb. — The verb is the word that supplies the asserting element in a sentence. The subject may be a single word or a phrase or even a whole clause; in imperative sentences the subject may be omitted altogether; but where there is no asserting verb, there is no sentence.

Modern English has two declensions of its verbs, the strong (irregular) and the weak (regular). The strong verbs form their past tense and past participles by internal change, as *ride, rode, ridden,* and *sing, sang, sung;* the others by a *-d, -ed,* or *-t* suffix, as *declare, declared, declared,* and *leap, leapt, leapt.* These same declensions existed in Old English also, and there were more weak verbs than strong. About three hundred verbs in Old English were of the strong declension. Through the tendency of words to become outworn and obsolete and to change to the predominant form, only about a hundred of the old, strong verbs are now in use in the irregular form. As new verbs are made, they are always built on the regular *-ed* pattern. We make the verb *to telegraph* with *-ed, telegraph, telegraphed, telegraphed.* The wildest flight of fancy would never suggest *telegride, telegrode, telegridden,* or *telegrang, telegrung,* or any other irregular pattern.

Old English had but the two tenses, present and past; a single voice; two numbers; and two modes, the indicative and subjunctive, with an imperative in the present tense. In addition it had three verbals: the infinitive, the present participle, and the perfect participle. Modern English has become simple by dropping most of its inflectional endings for number, tense, and mode; but to balance that it has built up verb-phrases in a fixed order not only to take the place of the lost inflections but also to parallel the two voices and six tenses of Latin, such as *might have been loved*, *shall have been completed*, etc. It has also developed the infinitive with *to* in addition to the old infinitive in *-an*, which in Middle English became the *-ing* infinitive that we now call the "gerund."

There were six classes of the old strong verbs. These are represented in modern English by the verbs preserving the following patterns of vowel gradation:

1.	drive	drove	driven
	ride	rode	ridden
	shine	shone	shone
2.	freeze	froze	frozen
	cleave	clove	cloven
	choose	chose	chosen
	seethe	sod[1]	sodden
3.	bind	bound	bound
	grind	ground	ground
	drink	drank	drunk
	ring	rang	rung
	cling	clung	clung
	spin	spun	spun

[1] Obsolete.

4.	bear	bore	borne
	tear	tore	torn
	break	broke	broken
5.	give	gave	given
	eat	ate	eaten
	see	saw	seen
	tread	trod	trodden
6.	shake	shook	shaken
	wake	woke	woke
	heave	hove	hove

In each group one or more verbs not exactly following the pattern have been shown to illustrate the changes that have occurred since the Old English period.

Some of these verbs in modern use have become regular. *Seethe* is now *seethe, seethed, seethed. Sod* occurs in the Authorized Version, 1611, in "Jacob sod pottage," *i.e.*, "Jacob boiled porridge." We still keep the participle in the phrase "a sodden mass." *Heaved* is now the usual past tense of *heave*, but both *heaved* and *hove* are in good use.

Emerson [1] classifies the eighty-seven strong (irregular) verbs in common use under five classes as follows:

Class I

abide	abode	abode
drive	drove	driven
ride	rode	ridden
rise	rose	risen
rive	(rove)	riven
shine	shone	shone
shrive	[2] shrove	[2] shriven

[1] Emerson, O. F. — *History of the English Language;* pp. 359–362.

[2] These words may also have the *-ed* endings: in some cases *-ed* is preferred.

smite	smote	smitten
stride	strode	(stridden)
thrive	[1] throve	[1] thriven
write	wrote	written
bind	bound	bound
find	found	found
fight	fought	fought
grind	ground	ground
wind	wound	wound
bite	bit	bitten
chide	[1] chid	[1] chidden
slide	slid	slidden

Class II

drink	drank	drunk
begin	began	begun
ring	rang	rung
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
spring	sprang	sprung
swim	swam	swum
run	ran	run
cling	clung	clung
dig	dug	dug
fling	flung	flung
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
spin	spun	spun
stick	stuck	stuck
stink	stunk	stunk
sting	stung	stung
string	strung	strung
swing	swung	swung
win	won	won

[1] These words may also have the *-ed* endings: in some cases *-ed* is preferred.

wring	wrung	wrung
hang	hung	hung
strike	struck	struck

Class III

cleave	clove	cloven
freeze	froze	frozen
heave	hove	hove
reeve	rove	rove
shear	[1] shore	[1] shorn
steal	stole	stolen
speak	spoke	spoken
weave	wove	woven
choose	chose	chosen
bear	bore	borne
tear	tore	torn
swear	swore	sworn
wear	wore	worn
break	broke	broken
stave	stove	stove
wake	woke	woke
get	got	got (gotten)
seethe	[1] sod	[1] sodden
shoot	shot	shot
tread	trod	trodden

Class IV

blow	blew	blown
draw	drew	drawn
fly	flew	flown
grow	grew	grown
know	knew	known
throw	threw	thrown
slay	slew	slain
forsake	forsook	forsaken

[1] These words may also have the *-ed* endings in modern usage.

shake	shook	shaken
stand	stood	stood
take	took	taken

Class V

bid	bade	bidden
come	came	come
eat	ate	eaten
give	gave	given
lie	lay	lain
sit	sat	sat
see	saw	seen
fall	fell	fallen
hold	held	held
beat	beat	beaten
bid	bid	bid
burst	burst	burst
let	let	let

The school problem. — Children in the upper school grades use the forms of most verbs correctly. Their mistakes are made with ten or a dozen verbs only. Some of the troublesome verbs are irregular, some are regular. The verbs that usually seem to be most troublesome are the following:

bring	brought	brought
burst	burst	burst
catch	caught	caught
come	came	come
do	did	done
give	gave	given
get	got	got
grow	grew	grown
know	knew	known

lay	laid	laid
lie (to recline)	lay	lain
ring	rang	rung
see	saw	seen
set	set	set
sit	sat	sat
steal	stole	stolen
teach	taught	taught
throw	threw	thrown
write	wrote	written

The teacher's problem is to find what words are troublesome in her school and then to make oral and written exercises, language games, etc., giving practice in sentences in the use of the correct forms of those verbs over and over until the correct forms become habitual through use, and the incorrect forms drop out through disuse. The language game and other such devices attach satisfaction and pleasure to learning. The teacher may also find means of attaching dissatisfaction to failure to use the right form readily, and even of attaching positive annoyance to using the wrong form. Repetition with intervals of rest between the drill periods will be necessary to fix the right habits. Do not spend time on a large number of words that make no trouble. Spend all the time on the few troublesome words, and when reviews after a lapse first of a week and then of a month show that the correct forms are firmly established, discontinue the formal teaching. From that time forward merely watch to see that the old wrong habits do not reappear in the children's speech and writing. Give attention to the individual needs of children who have certain special or " pet " errors.

The inflection of modern English verbs. — The forms of the present tense of *bind* (strong) and *stir* (weak) in Old and modern English are given together below.

I	*thou* (you)	*he, she, it*	*we, you, they*
binde	bindest	bindeth	bindath or binde (plural)
bind	bind	binds	bind (plural)
styrie	styrest	styreth	styriath (plural)
stir	stir	stirs	stir

For convenience in comparison *th* is substituted for its Old English equivalent, thorn þ. The Old English forms are almost parallel with the solemn forms of modern English. The optative (subjunctive) had one other form for each word, *binden* and *styrien;* and the imperative, one each, *bindan* and *styrian.*

Typically there are in modern English but five different forms, including the verbals, for the irregular verbs, and four for the regular.

ride	rides	riding	rode	ridden
bind	binds	binding	—	bound
stir	stirs	stirring	—	stirred
print	prints	printing	—	printed

In addition to the five present forms for *bind* given above, the Old English has eight other forms, making a total of thirteen.

Voice in English verbs. — There has always been but one voice for the English verb; that is, our verbs have had no set of inflectional forms different from the active for the passive meaning. English uses verb phrases, and not inflected forms. This means that all our verbs in their simple forms, in their "principal parts,"

are active. All of the following sentences represent the subject as acting:

> Fred *struck* the ball before it touched the ground. It *went* over the net. Mary *returned* it easily. Fred *used* a glancing stroke, and the ball *shot* out at an angle and *fell* in the alley of the left court. He *should have been* more careful of his grip on the handle of his racket.

In each sentence the subject is the active agent in what is asserted by the verb. While the simple forms of the verbs are all active, it is not to be understood that we do not also have active verb phrases. *Should have been* is an active verb phrase.

When we wish to put the subject in a passive or receptive attitude, either as not actively doing anything or as receiving the effect of action on the part of some one or some thing else, we are obliged to use more than one word in a verb phrase to show that relation. All the verb word phrases in the following sentences are passive:

> The ball *was struck* by Fred before it touched the ground. It *was caught* with a careful stroke by Mary and *was returned* to the opposite court. The play *might have been lost* by her if Fred's racket *had been held* more firmly for the return stroke.

Only the transitive verbs may be thus turned about from the active construction to verb phrases showing the subject to be in an inactive or a receptive condition. Voice, then, is a term that applies only to transitive verbs. The only value the distinction of active and passive voice can have in the teaching of grammar in schools is that it supplies a convenient term with which to guide students in their writing. The passive construction is usually less direct and open, therefore less

emphatic than the active. Children nearly always use the active constructions. Adults also use the active verbs and verb phrases much more frequently than the passive, but this should not be taken to mean that the passive construction is a faulty one or useless. Occasionally it supplies just the machinery one needs to express his meaning in the way he desires. When one wishes to be less direct, less emphatic, than usual he may resort to the passive verb phrase. Let us suppose that a subordinate has forgotten to do something that he should not have overlooked. His superior can use the active construction and say quite flatly and offensively, " I *told* you yesterday to bring the papers relating to that Jones contract to the office with you this morning " ; or he may say, " It *was suggested* to you yesterday that the papers relating to the Jones contract *would be needed* at the office this morning." If the matter were one of inexcusable neglect, the first form would probably be used. If the superior happened to know that the forgetfulness was due to the employé's anxiety over the serious illness of his little daughter, he would probably use the indirect passive form in speaking of the matter.

The passive construction is convenient when the agent is unknown or when the chief interest is in the act and not in the agent, as in, " Six houses were burned before the fire could be controlled," and " The pencils have all been taken from my table." Of course, one can say, " Someone has taken the pencils." The passive phrases give one a choice of two ways of saying a thing.

The passive voice is a rhetorical device and has no place in the grammatical equipment of elementary school

children. It should not be taught until pupils have reached an age at which their writing calls for a knowledge, an awareness, of the effects that may be got through the use of the passive phrases or of the blurring of impressions by the use of the passive, which could have been made clear and sharp by the use of the active forms.

Transitive and intransitive verbs. — A transitive verb is one that in active constructions requires an object to complete the sentence. All others are intransitive. If it were not for the necessity of deciding whether to follow the verb with a nominative or an objective pronoun, there would be no need to make this distinction at all. In active constructions the transitive verb requires an object to complete the sentence. Of course, if the object is a noun, there is no question of case. Nouns have no case distinctions except for the possessive. If, however, the object is one of the pronouns, *I* or *me, he* or *him, she* or *her, they* or *them,* or *who* or *whom,* one must know whether the complement is to be an object or not. Making a choice between the nominative and objective forms of those five pairs of words makes it necessary to recognize verbs as transitive or intransitive.

This distinction need not be made by school children until they come to an age at which they are learning the principles, the *why's*, of their customs of speech. For children in the middle school grades it is sufficient to give practice in the use of sentences requiring a choice between the nominative and objective forms of the five pronouns until a feeling for the correct develops.

The auxiliary verbs. — A small group of very important intransitive verbs that are not used alone to make

predications but are used to make up verb phrases are called auxiliary verbs. One of these is singled out by most grammarians for a special name. It is the verb *be* with its forms *am, is, are, was,* and *were.* This is called the *copulative* or " connecting " verb, or simply *the copula.* The older grammarians who insisted on making grammar and logic twin sisters contended that in every predication there is a connecting word and an attribute. This is true in such a sentence as, *Grass is green. Greenness* is asserted of *grass. Is* makes that connection between the subject and the thing asserted of the subject. The same thing may be maintained for the parts of the sentence, *He is going now. Going* is asserted of *he,* but the separation into two parts of the verb phrase *is going* is a fine, logical distinction that has nothing to contribute to a student's learning how to speak and write. The whole matter of setting the forms of *be* and the words *become, seem, appear, taste, smell, look,* and *feel* apart from the other intransitive verbs under a special name, *copulative,* is indefensible in functional grammar.

The auxiliary verbs are those verbs that are used to make up verb phrases to indicate variations in time, manner, and voice. In such phrases it is the final word that expresses the principal idea, the *thing* done; but it is the first auxiliary in the phrase that actually makes the assertion. In *might possibly have been arranged,* the last word, *arranged,* tells what is done, but the first word, *might,* is the asserting part of the phrase.

Notice that these phrases, while they occur over and over with the same words, may be broken up at various points by inserting adverbs, phrases, or clauses.

This might, according to the arrangement that was made with Albertson, *have been* previously *arranged*. (= *might have been arranged*.)

The verbs commonly used as auxiliaries to make up verb phrases indicating time, mode, and voice are *be*, (*is*, *are*, etc.), *have*, *had*, *do*, *did*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would*, *may*, *might*, *can*, *could*, and *must*. *Ought* is the old past tense of *owe* but is no longer used literally. We do not say, "He *ought* me six dollars." We say *owed*. It does, however, carry a sense of obligation.

The auxiliaries in verb phrases lose most of their own meaning; but four of them may be used either as principal verbs or as auxiliaries. These four are *be*, *have*, *will*, and *do*. The following sentences show them in use as principal verbs:

This cannot *be* your cousin.
What kind of envelopes will you *have*?
You can *do* whatever you *will* to do.

Dare and *need* are also sometimes used like auxiliaries; that is, they make verb phrases without the *to* before the final infinitive word. We may say either, "They did not *dare* to go," or "They did not *dare* go"; and we say "They *need* not go," rather than "They *need* not to go."

The distinction between principal verbs and auxiliaries is not always sharp. The copulative auxiliary *be* can be used as a predicating verb alone when it means *exists*. Both uses occur in Pope's line, "Whatever is, is right." The first *is* is a principal verb meaning *exists*. The second is copulative. *Can* once in a while in literature is used as an independent verb, meaning *to be able, to know,*

to understand, to know how to do. Matthew Arnold wrote, "Which has not taught weak wills how much they *can*." Browning says, "But here is the finger of God, a flash of the will that *can*." These are, of course, uncommon and poetic uses.

The modes of English verbs. — As we have seen, the Old English verbs had two complete modes, the *indicative* and the *subjunctive*, and the *imperative* in the present tense only. So far as inflections are concerned there is very little left of mode in modern English. We have only the indicative and a scrap or two of the wreckage of the subjunctive. This does not mean, however, that modern English is limited in its expressiveness, that we cannot say what we wish to say with as fine discriminations as our ancestors had at their command. By the use of the modal auxiliaries, *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*, we express every shade of meaning possible to the Anglo-Saxons, and doubtless many more, and all this with less effort in adjusting form to sense than they were obliged to give to their speech. These auxiliaries were once set up by the grammarians in a system of verb phrases as a potential mode; but since they are always combined with the regular indicative forms, none of the modern grammars recognize the potential as a separate mode.

The subjunctive mode. — The subjunctive in conditional clauses contrary to fact is still generally used, and, to a limited extent by a very few people careful to preserve the old standards and forms of the language, a few other remnants of the subjunctive are kept. The condition contrary to fact is most frequently expressed

with *were*, as, *if she were, if he were, if it were,* and *if I were.* The plurals *if you were* and *if they were* would use *were* whether subjunctive or indicative. The old subjunctives *if he be, if we be, if she read, if it come,* etc., are still affected by a few; but these forms are not common either in speech or in writing.

What the young person needs to know is that it is customary to say *if I were,* etc., in subordinate clauses where the condition is contrary to fact. The adult student should know, however, that even this last hold of the subjunctive is loosening. The colloquial use of *if he was* is not at all uncommon among even the masters of language, and its use in the literature of great writers is so frequently seen that no one is justified in calling the use "bad grammar."

Tense. — English verbs have only two distinct forms to indicate the time of an action. There is a form for present tense (present time) and one for past tense (past time): *see, saw; lend, lent; break, broke; mend, mended.* All other relations are expressed in verb phrases; as, *will send, should have sent, have sent, shall have sent, am sending, had been sending,* and similar groups of words.

The principal time relations that may be expressed in English by making use of verb forms or verb phrases are the following:

	Weak (Regular) Verb	*Strong (Irregular) Verb*
1. *Present tense.*	I print	I write
2. *Present perfect.*	I have printed	I have written
3. *Past.*	I printed	I wrote
4. *Past perfect.*	I had printed	I had written
5. *Future.*	I shall print	I shall write
6. *Future perfect.*	I shall have printed	I shall have written

In the present tense one must say, *He prints; She prints,* adding an *s* when the subject is in the third person singular. The present perfect tense uses *has* for the third person singular, as in *He has printed; She has written.*

Progressive action can be shown with each of the six tenses by prefixing to the present participle some form of the verb *be.*

1. I am printing
2. I have been printing
3. I was printing
4. I had been printing
5. I shall be printing
6. I shall have been printing

The teaching problem. — Memorizing six pages of the conjugation of *love* and *be* in three or four modes, six tenses, and two voices, as was the customary procedure some years ago when the older textbooks were in fashion, has no place in the modern teaching of grammar. Richard Grant White, a distinguished student of the language, was strongly opposed to that method of teaching thirty years ago. He said:

> What is the use of teaching a child that succession of words, each of which has its own meaning, and any two of which may be separated at pleasure by the introduction of other words; each of which has also, no more and no less, its own meaning?

The method of the older grammars in conjugating a verb with various subjects through all the phrase forms of the modes and tenses had little value as a school exercise. Pupils should be able, however, to recognize all the classes of verb phrases. These may be grouped as follows:

Passive — formed by the auxiliary *be* with the past participle.
Perfect — known by the auxiliary *have* and found in both voices.
Future — having the auxiliary *will* or *shall*.
Potential — known by the potential auxiliaries, *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*.
Progressive — formed by the present participle with the auxiliary *be*.
Emphatic or Interrogative — containing the auxiliary *do*, and found in the present and past tenses.

Advanced students should be able to name verb phrases, applying these terms. Thus *shall have been seen* is a future perfect passive verb phrase. *May have been running* is a perfect potential progressive verb phrase.

Although most of the verb phrases are formed after some regular pattern of a given voice, mood, or tense, idiomatic phrases of more or less irregularity are of frequent occurrence. The power to make new verb combinations is very largely developed in English.

For practice, students should write out certain verbs; as, *be*, *find*, *break*, *have*, *paint*, *sew*, and *telephone*, in full for given tenses. The purpose of such a set of exercises is not that the pupils shall *memorize* any verb in all its modes, tenses, voices, persons, and numbers, but that they may become aware of the machinery that we regularly employ to express certain shades of meaning. They should also have practice in forming verb phrases with *can*, *should*, *might*, etc.

Very little is said in this chapter of the person and number of verbs. The person and number of a verb are usually shown by its subject only. There is no change to show agreement in person and number between a verb and its subject except in the case of the *-s* forms

of verbs in the third person, singular number, and in the forms of the verb *be, am, is, are, was, were.* These distinctions are so slight that it seems better to teach them as a matter of memory to one who is studying the language than to teach an elaborate rule for an agreement that does not exist. The same may be said about mode. We make few mistakes in the use of mode. The forms are the same for all, except the vestige of a subjunctive, which may be taught by a few concrete examples.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

Only two or three references are given on each topic. These are merely to start the student on his quest. One who takes a topic like any of the following should select it early in the course and observe in everything he reads just how the makers of literature have used the language with respect to that topic. The few brief references below should be only a start. The student should be independent in his observation and, in his final report, should tell exactly what he has found and whether or not he finds agreement in the statements made in the reference books he has consulted.

1. The Agreement of the Verb and Subject.
   - Hall, J. Lesslie — *English Usage*, pp. 53–58.
   - Krapp, G. P. — *Modern English*, pp. 304–308.
   - Sweet, Henry — *New English Grammar*, Part II, pp. 81–83.
2. The Uses of *Shall* and *Will*.
   - Cross, E. A. — *The Little Grammar*, pp. 93–96.
   - Emerson, O. F. — *The History of the English Language*, p. 385.
   - Fowler, H. W., and Fowler, F. G. — *The King's English*, pp. 133–154.
   - Krapp, G. P. — *Modern English*, pp. 293–295.
   - Leonard, Mary Hall — *Grammar and Its Reasons*, Chapter XXXVII.

3. The Present Use of the Subjunctive.

FOWLER, H. W., and FOWLER, F. G. — *The King's English*, pp. 154–158, and 195.

HALL, J. LESSLIE — *English Usage*, pp. 311 and 331.

LEONARD, MARY HALL — *Grammar and Its Reasons*, Chapter XXXVIII.

SWEET, HENRY — *New English Grammar*, Part II, pp. 107–117.

CHAPTER XXII

VERBS — *Continued*

"Shall" and "will." — *Shall* and *will* are auxiliary verbs used in making up future tense phrases, but the special significance they have in expressing intention, promises, strong volition, and threats makes it necessary to give special attention to them. The following account of the past use of these auxiliaries is quoted from Emerson's *History of the English Language*. Emerson quotes Blackburn, on *The English Language, Its Origin and Development*, as his authority.

In Old English *shall* and *will* were occasionally used with infinitives, but usually with a clear recognition of the original meanings of the verbs *shall* "ought to," *will* "wish to." During the Middle English period the future came to be regularly expressed by the auxiliary *shall*. Toward the close of the same period *will* was also used along with *shall* in the first person to express a promise or a threat. In the modern period *will*, which had begun to be used in the first person for promises and threats, came to be used in the second and third persons to express futurity. By the middle of the seventeenth century the present usage, *will* in the first and *shall* in the second and third persons to express a promise or threat, *shall* in the first person and *will* in the second and third to express futurity, had fully established itself. Dialectally the levelling tendency has obliterated this distinction, and the same obliteration sometimes occurs with good speakers and writers.

In some parts of the United States the people, by habit, use *shall* and *will* and *should* and *would* according to the

fairly uniform literary customs; but in the greater portion of the country these words are not so used. The important thing is to form the habit of saying *I shall, we shall, I should,* and *we should.* These are the forms for simple future intention. If these habits are formed, there is no difficulty about shifting to *will* or *would* when these are needed with the first personal pronoun to express a wish, a determination, a promise, or a threat, or when they are needed with pronouns of the second or third person to express simple futurity.

The rules. — There is a rather elaborate set of rules established for the use of these words, which rules are observed with a fair degree of uniformity by careful speakers and writers. They are given here with the caution that they are only general guides and that in the pages of standard literature violations of every one of them occur, especially of those dealing with subordinate clauses.

1. When you mean simple future expectation or intention, use *shall* with a subject pronoun in the first person, and *will* with the second or third person. Say, *I shall go, We shall go,* but *You will go, He will go, She will go, It will go, They will go,* and *The car will go.*

2. When you mean to indicate any exercise of the will power (volition), such as a promise, determination, or a threat, use these auxiliaries in the reverse order. Say, *I will go, We will go, You shall go, He shall go, She shall go, It shall go, They shall go, The car shall go.*

These two rules are the fundamental statements. The three that follow are merely attempts to apply the first two to particular kinds of sentences.

3. In object clauses of indirect discourse, use the form that would have been used in the original direct statement. These clauses

occur after such verbs as *say, declare, think, hope,* and *fear.* Notice these sentences : *I think I shall go. I had determined that I would go.* In the first of these sentences the indirect discourse object-clause, *I shall go,* expresses simple future intention, and uses *shall* with the first person. In the second, the speaker originally said, "I will go." This expresses determination, and so uses *will* with the first person.

In the sentence, *He promised that he would go,* what the speaker said was, *I will go.* That was a promise. In the sentence, *He thought he should be going next week,* the original statement was, "*I think I shall be going next week.*" The rule would call for *should* (the past tense of *shall*) in the indirect statement. The practice of educated men would doubtless be divided in such a case, probably with a majority preferring *would.* Where intelligent practice is pretty evenly divided, either form must be considered satisfactory.

4. In all other subordinate clauses always use *shall* or *should* to indicate simple future time, and *will* or *would* to indicate an act involving volition (will power).

If I *should* decide to go, I *will* send for you.
If he *would* go, I *would* go too

5. In questions say *shall I* and *shall we.* When the subject of the sentence is in the second or third person, use the form that you expect in the answer. *Will you go with us next week?* implies that the questioner expects a promise in reply. The answer may be either a promise in the form of *I will,* or it may be something like this : *Why, yes, I shall be glad to go.* The question is asked by the speaker in the form that he expects in the answer. Whether he actually gets that form or not depends upon the feeling of the one questioned.

The verbals. — Those who are preparing to teach in the upper grades or the junior high school dread to teach "infinitives and participles," as they are called. These

seem to be the parts of grammar most difficult to teach. The reason for this is that they are often taught with parsing, analyzing, and diagramming. The teaching is logical, and not functional. Hence these elements of the language are hard for the teacher to understand and also hard for the pupil, because the grammarians have built up a logical system about them that does not really exist except in the minds of the old style grammarians. Almost no mistakes are made in the use of " infinitives and participles." There is very little chance to make mistakes with them. Students learn to avoid the few possible errors, not by learning the logic and the grammar of the verbals, not through parsing them, but by becoming so accustomed to the idiom that only the correct form *sounds* well. One may occasionally have a doubt about using a certain expression and wonder whether it is right or not. In that case he needs to know the grammar of the verbals, so as to be able to test his own speech and to resolve his doubts. Children below high school age, of course, have no need for a detailed knowledge of the verbals. Adult students, however, should know that four forms of the verb are unable, standing alone, to make a statement or ask a question. They do not make predications. These are the two participles and the two infinitives. The two participles, the present, *singing, driving, exciting*, etc., and the past, *sung, driven, excited*, etc., are used mainly either as adjective modifiers or as parts of verb phrases. In the latter case the assertion is made by the auxiliary verb.

The following are examples of participles used as adjective modifiers:

Singing birds are welcome everywhere.
Our *driving* horses are in the pasture to-day.
We are having a very *interesting* time.
The boys *drilling* in the park are scouts.
Well-*drilled* scouts march in perfect time.
Horses *driven* too hard soon become tired.

These participles are adjectives with a verbal fringe. They usually imply motion, but they do not assert it. Those *singing* birds may be robins that have not sung a note since last spring, merely song birds (capable of singing). *Driving* may or may not suggest motion at any given moment. The *driving* horses may be asleep in the shade of the trees at the time we are speaking about them.

Examples of participles used as parts of verb phrases:

The birds are *singing*.
We have been *driving* our new car to-day.
The scouts have been *drilling* an hour.
You have *excited* my curiosity.
They should have *drilled* on the lawn in the shade.

Here the action is always implied, but the participle does not make the assertion. That is done by the auxiliary verbs in the verb phrases. The adjective force of the participles in the verb phrases is shown here, not because the fact that it has adjective qualities makes any difference but merely to indicate that the participle in a verb phrase is not a different thing from a participle in the adjective position preceding or following a noun. In analyzing a sentence, the verb phrase should not be broken up by that kind of separation. It is a unit, and should be treated as a unit making a predication.

The dangling participles, and the absolute construction. — The only mistake commonly made in using the participle is that of using the *-ing* form in a phrase with no subject for it to modify. This would not be bad if it were not that the meaning is thus obscured. When we say, " Having eaten our lunch, the Ford once more began the climb toward the top of the hill," we say that the Ford ate the lunch. We are so regularly accustomed to these phrases modifying the subject nearest at hand that we automatically connect the Ford and eating. Observing our mistake, we go back and rectify it. A sentence should not make that necessary. The first reading should make its meaning clear. The same confusion arises in the sentence, " While speaking to one of the other boys, the trout slipped off the hook and got away." The unambiguous use of the participial phrase at the beginning of a sentence is seen in the sentence a few lines above in this paragraph, " Observing our mistake, we go back and rectify it." The participial phrase modifies the subject *we*. To correct the sentence about the trout one needs only to make a clause of the participial phrase by supplying a subject. Then the sentence will say, " While Tom was speaking to one of the other boys, the trout slipped off his hook and got away." The phrase no longer dangles about without modifying anything, as it did in the first arrangement.

There is an acceptable participial construction that does not modify the subject of the sentence. In fact, it does not modify anything in the sentence. This is called the " absolute construction." It is accepted as good usage because its meaning is clear and because it is

regularly employed by educated men and women in their speech and writing. If we say, " Having arrived late, the play was half finished," we have the dangling participle. But in the sentence, " The day being cloudy, we decided to postpone our camping excursion," the participial phrase *gives a reason*, though it does not logically modify anything in the principal clause. This is the " absolute construction." The participial construction is not misleading. The same construction is used in the sentence following: " It now being twilight, you may see a number of stars tumble out of their places."

The infinitive with " to." — The infinitive with *to* is usually a noun in a sentence and may be used in any of the noun relations; that is, as subject, as predicate noun, as object of a transitive verb, as object of a preposition, and as an appositive.

Subject.	*To climb* is my aim. (climbing)
Predicate noun.	My aim is *to climb*. (climbing)
Object.	He had tried all summer *to help*.
Object of prep.	He asked nothing but *to receive* justice.
Appositive.	His request, *to receive* nothing but justice, won the approval of his hearers.

In addition to these regular noun uses the infinitive has four other uses not quite so obvious. These are as follows:

1. When a clause is condensed to an infinitive phrase, the infinitive takes the place of the verb, implying a predication but not actually making it. For example: *The teacher asked that each student should select a topic for individual study.* The sentence with the object clause condensed to an infinitive phrase is *The teacher asked*

each student to select a topic, etc. Here the infinitive is merely the verb after having lost its asserting force.

2. The infinitive is sometimes nothing more than an adjective, as in *Houses to rent are scarce this year.*

3. The infinitive may become a predicate adjective, as in *Their school is to begin* (*is beginning*) *in September.*

4. The infinitive may be used as an adverb, as in *The Pilgrims came here to secure religious liberty. To secure* gives the *purpose* of their coming.

These adjective and adverbial uses of the infinitive need not puzzle the student. The infinitive has the nature of noun and verb in its make-up. Nouns easily become adjectives, and verbs are closely related to adverbs.

The gerund, or infinitive in "-ing." — There is a pure noun ending in *-ing* which has no verbal significance. This is seen in the two sentences following:

They studied both *biology* and *reading.*

The *ending* of that sentence was as bad as the *beginning* of the other one or as the *close* of the one at the top of page seven.

Notice that *reading* and *biology* are parallel nouns with no verbal implications, and that the singular noun *close* and the *-ing* noun *beginning* are parallel in use to the singular word *ending.* All are simply nouns, implying no action. We have already studied another *-ing* word, the present participle.

There is a third word ending in *-ing* that is a noun, but a noun with decided verbal qualities. It is the *gerund,* as it is usually called, or the *infinitive in -ing,* as it is called by Whitney.[1]

[1] Whitney, W. D. — *Essentials of English Grammar.*

These words are nouns in their use in sentences just as the infinitive with *to* is. Like the noun use of the infinitive with *to*, they take adverbial modifiers like any verb. It will be seen, in the two sentences following, that the two constructions are merely different ways of writing the infinitive.

Infinitive with "to." To prepare quickly for their guests required only a few minutes.

Gerund. Preparing quickly for their guests required only a few minutes.

Notice that both these infinitives take adverbial modifiers, although they are the subjects of the two sentences, and therefore equivalent to nouns.

Another peculiarity of these verb-nouns is that while acting as nouns they may take an object directly, like a verb, and not after a preposition, as is the case with a pure noun made from a verb; for example:

Noun. The hasty [adjective] preparation of a dinner for the guests was the next thing to be considered.

Infinitive. Hastily [adverb] to prepare a *dinner* for the guests was the next thing to be considered.

Noun. The hasty [adjective] preparing of a *dinner* for the guests was the next thing to be considered.

Gerund. Hastily [adverb] preparing a *dinner* for the guests was the next thing to be done.

Observe that the unmixed noun requires an adjective modifier rather than an adverbial and that if it is followed by an object after the preposition *of*, it must also be preceded by the definite article *the*. The gerund is not preceded by the definite article nor followed by the prepositional phrase. It takes its object directly follow-

ing, just as a verb does. Below are examples of all the uses of the gerund. The student will notice that these five common uses are the five uses of all nouns.

As subject.	Actually *seeing* the demonstration made me change my mind.
As predicate noun.	His greatest fault is *being* sarcastic.
As object of a preposition.	He spends all his time in carefully *mending* broken china.
As object.	He practiced *mending* china.
As appositive.	His occupation, skillfully *mending* broken china, brings him a good income.

The pure noun in *-ing* and the gerund in *-ing* may be used interchangeably if one remembers that both *the* and *of* go with one and neither *the* nor *of* with the other. There is no other possibility of making mistakes in using the three kinds of *-ing* words, except that the nouns or pronouns preceding the gerund should be in the possessive form, *man's* and *his*, not *man* and *him*. "The overseer inquired about the *man's* (not *man*) being late." "The overseer inquired about *his* (not *him*) being late." This is the rule, but it is violated frequently enough in good writing to warn one not to be dogmatic about asserting that the objective form is contrary to good usage.

The history of these words is interesting. In modern English they all look alike, but in Old English they were different in form. The old infinitive ended in *-an* and *-anne*. The participle ended in *-ende*. In Middle English this became *-ing* or *-inge*. There was little difference in the sounds of these endings and a good deal of similarity in the meanings and uses of the words. Finally the two came to be sounded alike and spelled alike,

even though they have decidedly different functions in sentences.

The teacher's problems. — Five of the teaching problems connected with verbs have already been taken up. These are avoidance of errors made with the principal parts of a few verbs; the difficulty with nominative and objective forms of the personal pronouns and the relative *who* after transitive and intransitive verbs; the use of *were* in conditional clauses contrary to fact; the proper uses of *shall* and *will*, and *should* and *would;* and avoidance of the dangling participle.

The remaining problem to be considered with verbs is that of agreement between the verb and the subject in number. Sweet says —

> Concord requires that the verb should agree in number with its subject. This principle is always adhered to when the subject is a single word of unmistakable singular or plural meaning as well as form; but when the meaning is in conflict with the number, logical considerations generally prevail over grammatical, so that subject and verb are in different numbers.
>
> Collective nouns in the singular are frequently joined to plural verbs whenever the statement is meant to apply to the separate individuals, while a singular verb implies that the speaker is not thinking of the individuals, but rather of the whole collective body. Thus we can say either that *the public is*, or *the public are, the council is*, or *the council are, of that opinion.* Conversely, subjects in the plural which suggest ideas of singularity may take singular verbs, as in *Forty yards is too much, Thirty yards is a good distance.*[1]

This treatment of Sweet's is much more nearly in keeping with the practice than was the old rule of the grammars that said flatly, " A verb must agree with its

[1] *New English Grammar*, Part II, p. 81.

subject in person and number." Baskerville and Sewell's grammar takes a sane and modern view of the matter when it says, " It will not do to state as a general rule that the verb agrees with its subject in person and number."

As has been said earlier, there is no actual agreement of verb and subject except when the subject is singular and in the third person, and the verb in the present tense. Then the verb must be in the *-s* form, *rides, chooses, reads, plays*, etc. Also there is an agreement in person and number when the old solemn forms of pronouns and verbs are used. Here we have in the present tense, second person, singular, an ending *-est* and in the past *-st* or *-edst* (*thou walkest, thou walkedst*). Outside of the indicative mode, third person, and singular number, then, in modern usage there is no grammatical adjustment made to secure agreement.

Hall [1] cites example after example to show that with compound subjects as well as single noun subjects literary men all through the period of modern English literature have taken unbounded liberties with this rule, regarding any plural or compound that they were using as singular if it struck them as expressing an idea of unity. Out of the many from various authors, one quotation from the Bible will serve here. " Light and understanding and excellent wisdom *is* found in thee."

Sweet's statement (see page 343) is a safe guide. " This principle is always adhered to when the subject is a single word of unmistakable singular or plural meaning as well as form." The student who is learning to

[1] *English Usage*, pp. 53–58.

write should carefully adhere to that part of the rule. He may then follow Sweet's observation for the other type of subjects; that is, "When the meaning is in conflict with the number, logical considerations should generally prevail over grammatical, so that the subject and verb may be in different numbers."

Above all, the student should not presume to set up his knowledge of a rule of grammar as superior to the practice of Shakespeare, Milton, Lamb, Thackeray, Matthew Arnold, Macaulay, Burke, Hawthorne, Scott, and Kipling. Such men as these *make the language.* Grammar must not get out of its sphere, which is to report what the language *is* as literary men have made it.

In planning lessons to overcome language difficulties, in each case carefully arranged exercises giving practice in using the correct form are suggested as the economical and effective means toward that end. The first thing always is to make the pupil conscious of using the incorrect form and desirous of overcoming the habit of using it; next he should be led to see what the correct usage is; and then he should have well-organized practice lessons in the correct usage, these at intervals with rests between until the habit is fairly well fixed. After that, following an interval of a week or a month in which there has been little or no conscious practice, review lessons may be given.

REFERENCES AND TOPICS FOR INDIVIDUAL REPORTS

Instead of readings for individual study at the close of this chapter a number of disputed usages are listed. Some of these are words, some phrases, and some constructions. It is suggested that each

student who has not already taken a problem large enough to occupy all the time he should give to English should take one of these and, as he reads or hears the form in speech through the year, should note how it is used, whether in accord with the rule usually laid down by grammars, rhetorics, and dictionaries or opposed to the rule. Many quotations involving the questioned usage should be kept in a note book. The results of the observations should be given to the class at the end of the course.

This kind of investigation is very much needed. We have been so much inclined to depend upon rule and logic, rather than upon what educated people say and what the makers of literature write, that a careful observation of a single word through a considerable period of time by an alert student will make a valuable contribution to the class study of English.

A great deal of this kind of work has been done. The student will not be wholly pioneering. He may use all the previous studies at his command and then add his own observations to them. The following sources are suggested as general references for these topics :

The New English Dictionary (Oxford)
The Century Dictionary
Webster's New International Dictionary
The Standard Dictionary

The student should, first, look up the topic in as many of the dictionaries as are at his command, and then follow up what they say by the investigations of individual scholars and by his own observations.

1. *Catched.*
2. *Commence to* as compared with *begin to* and *start to.*
3. *Donate.*
4. *Dove* for *dived.*
5. *Drank* as a past participle.
6. *Eat* pronounced *et* for past tense or past participle.
7. *Got* or *gotten* as past participle.
8. *Graduate* as an active verb.
9. *Had rather* or *would rather.*

10. *Had better* or *would better.*
11. *Have got* to indicate mere possession.
12. *I guess.*
13. *I reckon.*
14. *I calculate.*
15. Case of the pronoun before a gerund.
16. Case of the noun before a gerund.
17. *Loan* used as a verb.
18. The dangling participle in good literature.
19. *Proved* or *proven* as a participle.
20. *Remember of* for *remember.*
21. *Resurrect* as a verb.
22. The retained object.
23. Confusion of the forms of *sit* and *set.*
24. Confusion of the forms of *lie* and *lay.*
25. The split infinitive.
26. *Transpire* as a verb meaning *to happen.*
27. *To-morrow will be Thursday,* or *is Thursday.*
28. *Suspect* for *think, suppose,* or *imagine.*
29. *Try and* or *try to.*
30. *You was* for *you were.*
31. *Want to know,* or *wish to know, wish to go,* etc.
32. Preposition at the end of a sentence.

The following studies will be found helpful in this connection:

HALL, J. LESSLIE — *English Usage.*

JESPERSEN, OTTO — *A Modern English Grammar on Historical Lines,* two volumes.

KELLNER, LEON — *Historical Outlines of English Syntax.*

LOUNSBURY, T. R. — *The Standard of Usage in English.*

MÄTZNER, EDWARD — *English Grammar,* two volumes. Translation by C. J. Grece, London, 1885.

SMITH, C. ALPHONSO — *Studies in English Syntax.*

SWEET, HENRY — *New English Grammar,* two volumes.

CHAPTER XXIII

Adverbs

Definition. — Adverbs are commonly described as words used as modifiers of verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. Adjectives modify only nouns, except that in the predicate they may be considered as modifying the pronoun subject, since the predicate adjective names an attribute of the subject. Adverbs are a very loosely defined class of words. The term is used to apply to almost any word that is not readily classified under one of the other seven parts of speech. Even the responsives *yes* and *no* are sometimes called adverbs.

History of adverbs. — In Old English, adverbs were regularly formed from adjectives by adding *e*, as adjective *dēop* (*deep*), adverb *dēope;* adjective *heard* (*hard*), adverb *hearde;* adjective *læt* (*slow*), adverb *late.* In the history of other parts of speech we have seen final unstressed *e*'s dropped in Middle English. This happened to the *-e*'s of the adverbs, leaving many adverbs and adjectives alike in form. Modern English retains several of these; for example, *straight, hard, far, near, slow, ill, well, much,* and *little.* The tendency of modern English is, however, to regard *-ly* as the necessary ending for adverbs. On this account there are several of the old adverbs identical in form with adjectives that have also

a form ending in *-ly*. Examples: *near, nearly* (both forms are adverbs); *late, lately; quick, quickly; hard, hardly; slow, slowly; high, highly; loud, loudly; deep, deeply; close, closely;* and *just, justly*. All of these words are either adjectives or adverbs in the simple form without *-ly*. Good usage also sanctions the adverbial use of both the simple form and the *-ly* form of each of the words. Notice, though, that in some cases the form with *-ly* has a different meaning or is used in a different connection from that of the other. A tower can be built *high* (not *highly*) into the air. A man may be *highly* (not *high*) regarded in his state. We say that "The train was *just* (exactly) on time," and that "The decision was *justly* (with justice) rendered." We say, "Stand *close* beside the wall and observe that man *closely*." But we can say either "drive *slow*" or "*slowly*," "do not speak too *loud*" or "too *loudly*." In each case the *-ly* form is the newer adverb.

The origin of "-ly" as an adverb suffix. — The philologists are not fully agreed as to the origin of the suffix *-ly* of the modern English adverbs. The explanation usually offered is that it is the Old English *līce* pronounced *leek-e* and meaning *like*. This word used as a suffix was unstressed, and so not distinctly pronounced. Finally *līce* became *-li*, spelled *-ly*. In Southern English in Chaucer's time *līce* was spelled *liche*, and was pronounced with the *ch* rather than the *k* sound of *c*.

Other adverb suffixes. — A few adverbs were formed from Old English adjectives ending in *-unga* or *-inga*. None of these have survived in modern English, but a few have come down from nouns ending in *-ling*. We

have the adverb *sideling*, and *sidelong* and *headlong* formed on the supposition that *ling* was *long*. A few adverbs have the suffix *weard* or its genitive case *weardes*. For example, *upward* and *upwards*, *backward* and *backwards*, *toward* and *towards*.

An interesting group of adverbs uses the noun *weg* (*way*) as suffix; for example, *alway*, *always*, *midway*, *noway*. Others use *wise* (meaning *manner*), as *nowise*, *lengthwise* (or *lengthways*), *endwise*, *coastwise*. Others use *time* or *times*, as *sometime*, *sometimes*, *ofttimes*, *oftentimes*, and *meantime*. Still others are word groups shortened into a single adverb, as *on life*, *alive*; *on slæpe*, *asleep*; *ealne weg*, *alway* or *always*.

Adverbs formed from pronouns. — A group of adverbs of place were formed from Old English pronouns. They are *here*, *there*, *where*; *hither*, *thither*, *whither*; *hence*, *thence*, *whence*.

The classification of adverbs. — The older grammars attempted to make a logical classification of all the adverbs. They said that adverbs indicate place, time, cause, manner, and degree. All of these relations are indicated by adverbs, but the five terms do not by any means include all the words that must, for want of a better place, be classed with the adverbs. On the whole, since any classification one can make serves no particular purpose and must leave many words unclassified, it seems best merely to call all the words adverbs that in any way modify the meaning of any part of speech outside the noun or pronoun.

Some adverbs not easily classified. — The following words are adverbs that do not readily fall into any of the

usual "classes of adverbs": *not, yes, no, there* (the expletive), *by no means, not at all, enough, once, twice, thrice,* etc., *needs* (in *needs must*), *together, nevertheless, at best, at all, in vain, of old,* and *one by one.*

The comparison of adverbs. — The only inflection of adverbs is that of degree. They are inflected like adjectives. The single-syllabled words, if they are inflected at all, take the suffixes *-er* and *-est.* But since most of our adverbs have come to conform to the *-ly* pattern, they require *more* and *most* or *less* and *least.*

> They try as *hard* as they can.
> Others seem to try *harder.*
> Kate tried *hardest* of all and succeeded.

Hard as an adjective has the same forms as the adverb. *Surely* requires *more* and *most,* or *less* and *least.* Such words as *very, verily, formerly, perchance, always, upward, backward, hardly,* also the adverbial numerals and the adverbs derived from the Old English pronouns — such as, *there, thither, where, whither, here, hither, hence,* etc. — these and many others do not admit of comparison. Comparison of adverbs presents no difficulty to the British- or American-born child aside from the need for learning when to use the comparative. Perhaps it does to the foreign born. The difficulty is, however, more likely to come from the variety of words used as adverbs than from comparison.

Prepositions as adverbs. — There is a close relation between prepositions and adverbs. *Up* followed by its consequent noun is a preposition in a phrase, but when one says, "The puppy ran up to us," there is a question whether the preposition is *up to* or whether *up* is an ad-

verb as in the sentence, "The puppy ran up." *In* is an adverb in, "Mary came *in* when it began to rain." *Within, down, over, under,* and the other words commonly used as prepositions may be used very properly as adverbs.

Interrogative adverbs. — *When, where, whence, whither, why,* and *how* are adverbs used as initial words in interrogative sentences.

When do you sail?
Where are the cards?

Relative or conjunctive adverbs. — Sometimes an adverb is a subordinate conjunction in addition to its function as an adverb; that is, it causes the subordinate clause of which it is a part to modify a word in a principal clause or to modify the whole idea of the principal clause. The common conjunctive adverbs are *where, whence, whither, wherever, when, whenever, while, as, how, why, before, after, till, until,* and *since.* Some of these may be either relative adverbs or interrogative adverbs, depending upon the construction of the sentences in which they appear. *Before, after, till, since,* and *until* may be either prepositions or conjunctive adverbs.

Wait *until* morning.
Wait *until* the sun rises.

What a word is depends not upon its origin, history, or basic meaning, but upon its use in a sentence.

Adverbial use of nouns. — Adverbs not only indicate place, time, cause, manner, and degree, but also direction, measure of distance, and some other relations.

The prepositions *in*, *up*, *around*, *about*, etc., when used as adverbs indicate direction or place. Some nouns in sentences express measure of distance or limits of time or motion. These are true functions of adverbs.

I am going *home*.
They had walked four *miles*.
They had been gone two *hours*.

The old scheme of analyzing such sentences did not recognize that the adverbial function could be filled by a noun. It required that the sentence should be filled out by supplying missing parts, such as —

I am going *to my* home.
They had walked *as far as* four miles *are far*.
They had been gone for *the space of time of* two hours.

The absurdity of supplying words in this way is seen when one tries to imagine hearing anyone speak in such language as this. The natural idiom uses the noun as an adverb and not as a noun object of an imagined preposition, or as a subject of an imagined verb in some subordinate clause after an imagined conjunctive adverb. The first use is natural, idiomatic speech; the second is made to fit somebody's trumped up rules for parsing and analyzing.

The responsives "yes" and "no." — *Yes* and *no* are loosely called adverbs. *Yes* is an old compound of *gea* and the subjunctive *sie* meaning "be it." The *g* is soft in the Old English compound of the two words *gise* and the Eastern (Anglian) form *gese*, making it sound somewhat like *yise* or *yeese*. In late Middle and early modern English it was pronounced as *yis* or *yes*. Some still call

it *yis*. Both *no* and *not* come from the Old English negative particle *ne*. This syllable was prefixed, as *ne* or the letter *n*, to verbs and to some pronouns and adjectives to make them negative. This negative is seen in *ne an* (*nan*), (*no one*, or *none*) in *nawhit* or *nowhit* (*no whit*), and in *naht* or *noht* (*not* or *naught*). This accounts for both the adverb and responsive uses of the word. It appears, then, that the history of the words makes them adverbs. As responsives they are really not adverbs but are condensed whole sentences. *Are you going? Yes.* *Yes* means the whole sentence, *I am going.* *No* would have meant the whole sentence, *I am not going.*

Double negatives. — Old English freely employed the double negative. Adding negatives strengthened the negation. The Latin custom of regarding two negatives as neutralizing each other and making a positive did not come in until the beginning of modern English. *Nan ne dorste nan þing ascian* had the three negatives: "*No-one* durst *not no* thing ask." One other could have been added to *ascian*. This could have been written *ne ascian* or *nascian*. The double or triple negative has disappeared, except in sporadic cases, from good colloquial and written modern English; but it is still heard very frequently in the common speech of uneducated people; for example: *I never heard nobody say nothing about it*, or even *I haint never heard nobody say nothing about it.* You will see examples of the common double negative in Ring Lardner's baseball stories.

Pairs of adverbs. — Some adverbs regularly occur in pairs. Some of these are *to* and *fro*, *now* and *then*, *here* and *there*, *hither* and *thither*, *up* and *down*, *right* and *left*,

and those usually repeated in the same form, such as *partly . . . partly, now . . . now.*

Some questioned uses of adverbs. — *Bad* is the adjective, *badly* the adverb. So say the dictionaries. No report on the literary use of these is available by which one may test whether usage is correctly reported by the dictionaries.

The in " The more the merrier " is an adverb. The phrase means " In proportion as there are more people we shall be by that amount merrier."

There is commonly held an adverb even when used as an expletive, as in " There are stretches of desert in Utah." The pronoun *it* is also used as an expletive in the same way. " It is six years since they were here last." In this use, *there* has lost its adverbial significance as telling " where " ; and *it* has no significance as a pronoun. All these words do is to reverse the word order of subject and verb, thus making the verb prominent and the subject relatively insignificant. There is no dispute about the correctness of the usage. A question arises as to what they are in grammar, but that is not very important.

" Slow," or "slowly"? — Sometimes those who are particular about their English are shocked to see on public signs even on college grounds, " Drive slow." Many adverbs have the same forms as the corresponding adjectives. *Fast* and *slow* are two of these. *Drive slow* is grammatical. *Slowly* is also an adverb in good standing. " How slow times goes," says Shakespeare. " Slowly the morning star faded," is good usage. *Slow* could not be used correctly in the second sentence.

"Mornings," "evenings," and "Saturdays." — The use of nouns as adverbs in such constructions as, "I work mornings, do my reading evenings, and take some recreation Saturdays" is objected to by most of the makers of grammars and rhetorics. Here is another topic for extensive observation by some careful student. Collect the data. Keep quotations showing the adverbial uses similar to those in the sentence above. Krapp [1] says that these words are pure adverbs equivalent to "in the morning," "in the evening," and "on Saturday." He says of the *-s* ending:

> In origin, it is derived from an older adverbial genitive ending in *-es* with which in later times was confused the idea of the plural. But logically, and therefore grammatically, its function is adverbial in modern English whether it is regarded as a singular or a plural, and the construction is to be accepted as a natural idiom of the language.

The split infinitive. — The dispute over the split infinitive was settled long ago by scholars, but one still hears echoes of it in the schoolroom. Whenever the sense or sound of a sentence requires that an adverb shall come between the *to* and the verbal part of an infinitive, it is thus written by even the most careful writers. Those who always avoid the split infinitive find themselves driven now and then to write sentences in a style that is extremely artificial and in some cases not even clear as to meaning. The construction is comparatively new, but it occurs occasionally in the works of the great writers for the past two hundred years and more. Matthew Arnold, Herbert Spencer, and Robert Brown-

[1] *Modern English*, p. 309.

ing used it now and then. Some of the scholars who defend it never use it themselves. The prevailing custom is not to put the adverb between the *to* and the infinitive; but one should know that the construction has had and still has the sanction of literary men, if in his speaking or writing he finds occasion to make a sentence smooth or clear by using the split infinitive.

The same question might arise about splitting up the participial or gerundive phrase. May one write, "His plan for heavily taxing the people," or "It has been repeatedly and carefully observed"? Both are used so frequently and by such careful speakers that the question is never asked. But these two uses are no more grammatical or logical than the split infinitive.

"Mighty" as an adverb. — The use of *mighty* as an adverb in sentences like *I am mighty glad to see you, You were mighty fortunate,* etc., is objected to as provincial. Hall (*English Usage,* p. 159) cites a number of reputable authors as using *mighty* where some such unquestioned word as *very* or *exceedingly* would be chosen by those who feel any sense of doubt about the standing of *mighty.* Stevenson, Thackeray, and Holmes are the most prominent of recent writers so using it. Hall concludes, "The point that the writer contends for is that *mighty,* used as an adverb, is not a provincialism." He regards it as in good colloquial use both in England and America.

The position of "only" in a sentence. — The strict grammarians of the older type have insisted that *only* should, whenever possible, be placed immediately before the word it limits, not because of the rule but because there it serves its purpose best. Whenever it serves

best in any other position, it should be shifted to that other position.

"Pretty" as an adverb. — Shall we say, "Thank you, I have been *pretty* well," "Your argument is *pretty* clear," "It has been *pretty* cold again"? This use of *pretty* is very generally recognized as in good colloquial and good literary usage. See Hall's *English Usage*, p. 217, for citations and examples.

"Right" as an adverb. — In *Lancelot and Elaine*, Tennyson says:

> *Right* fain were I to learn this knight were whole,
> Being our greatest.

The Vision of Sir Launfal has the lines:

> We sit in the warm shade and feel *right* well
> How the sap creeps up and the blossoms swell.

There are many passages in good literature, both English and American, containing this use of *right*. There is, however, a truly provincial use of it in such sentences as this: "He was *right much* put out when he saw you in his seat," "There was a *right many* people in that crowd." No doubt the provincialism has grown out of the literary usage in *right reverend, right valiant*, and the like. Of course, Tennyson's use of right in the *Idylls* is intentionally archaic.

"Such," as an intensive adverb. — *Such universal popularity, such happy days, such a severe winter*, and similar expressions have been opposed by rhetoricians. They propose *so*, as in *popularity so nearly universal, days so happy*, and *a winter so severe*. These phrases with *so* are correct, even though some of them are stilted;

but that admission does not make the use of *such* as an adverb inadmissible. It too is in good use. The only objectionable use of *such* is that which makes it merely an intensive adverb equivalent to *very*. It becomes a mannerism when used with strong emphasis on *such*, as in "Good-by. We have had *such* a delightful time. It was *so* good of you to have us come." These words *such* and *so* should not be used as intensives unless they are followed by a subordinate clause beginning with *that* or *as*, or unless such a clause is easily implied.

"This" and "that" as adverbs. — *This much* and *that much*, as in *Give him this much medicine*, or *Let him have that much candy*, are provincial or possibly colloquial English. Occasionally one finds examples in good literature, but these are rare. The use of *that* as an adverb other than with *much* is quite indefensible. "I was *that* sick I could *have* died," and "I was *that* tired I could *hardly* stand up," and "When I heard about your engagement, I was *that* happy," are all provincial and vulgar.

REFERENCES FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS

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2. Fernald, James C. — *Connectives of English Speech*, "Relative or Conjunctive Adverbs," pp. 299–313.
3. Leonard, Mary Hall — *Grammar and Its Reasons*, "Adverbs," Chapter XLII.
4. Sweet, Henry — *A Short Historical English Grammar*, "Adverbs," pp. 191–204.

CHAPTER XXIV

Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections

The function of the preposition. — Inflected languages express by the means of endings many of the relations that are expressed in uninflected languages by prepositions. English nouns, for example, do not have case endings to indicate the indirect object, the dative of interest, the locative relations, etc. But by the use of prepositions all these shades of meaning and many more are very exactly expressed.

Concerning the use of the preposition, Henry Sweet, the English philologist, says:

> The grammatical function of a preposition is to make the noun-word it governs into an adjunct word. In English the prepositions play so important a part that they are really of more weight than the scanty remains of case inflection.

The office of the preposition, then, is to bring a noun or pronoun into relationship with another word. A noun cannot, as a noun, modify a verb, but by means of a preposition a noun can be brought into such a relation. In the sentence *Dinner is always served here in the evening*, we have one adverb to indicate the place of the serving, and another to indicate the time. But it is not ordinarily possible to indicate a time relation by using a noun directly. The preposition is called in to bring verb and

noun into this relationship. In other words, by using a preposition we are able to bring a noun into an adverbial relationship with a verb. The same thing is done for pronouns.

Sometimes we wish to bring a noun or pronoun into an adjective relationship with a noun. This can be done directly by using the noun as an adjective or by using the possessive form of the noun or pronoun. It is done less directly by putting the noun or pronoun into a prepositional phrase.

Noun as adjective.	Stone walls are more durable than iron fences.
Possessive form of noun.	Henry's motorcycle is in the repair shop again this week.
Possessive form of pronoun.	His motorcycle is in the repair shop most of the time.
Noun as adjective modifier in a prepositional phrase.	Walls of stone are very durable.
Pronoun as adjective modifier in a prepositional phrase.	This house of his is for sale.

The student will observe that these constructions are not all interchangeable. One may say *stone walls* or *walls of stone*, but not *Henry's motorcycle* or *the motorcycle of Henry*, *his motorcycle* or *the motorcycle of his*. This means that the prepositional phrase serves a purpose not otherwise provided for in the language.

The phrases made by prepositions and their adjunct words serve in sentences as either adjective or adverbial modifiers.

Historically the prepositions were derived from adverbs, and some of them are still used as adverbs when not followed by a noun or pronoun adjunct. In those

cases they are attached to the verb as a kind of separable adverb suffix. *Think of me* is no more than *remember me*, as if the verb were *think of*. *Ran to* is equal to the verb *approached*.

The prepositions in common use. — There are in all about eighty prepositions and a dozen or fifteen more word groups that serve as simple prepositions. Of this number the following sixty are in common use: *about, above, across, after, against, along, amid, amidst, among, amongst, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, betwixt, beyond, but* (meaning *except*), *by, concerning, considering, down, during, except, excepting, for, from, in, inside, into, of, off, on, out, outside, over, past, regarding, respecting, round, since, through, throughout, till, to, toward, towards, under, underneath, until, unto, up, upon, with, within,* and *without.*

The less common prepositions. — The following seventeen prepositions are less frequently used in speech and writing: *abaft, aboard, aslant, athwart, barring, bating, ere, mid, midst, notwithstanding, overthwart, pending, per, save, saving, touching, via.*

The preposition word groups. — Each of the following word groups is used as a single preposition: *according to, in accordance with, on account of, because of, with respect to, in respect to, in consideration of, in spite of, by means of, with regard to, in default of, in consequence of, with reference to, in reference to, as to.* Since the common pattern for those groups is preposition plus a noun plus another preposition, others can be made up on the pattern, but these listed here are so frequently used as to have become more or less standardized.

The preposition and object. — It is commonly said that a phrase is made of "a preposition and its object," or that the noun or pronoun following a preposition is "governed by" the preposition and is in the objective case. In a way the preposition does govern the word following, and where the word has case, the objective usually follows the preposition; but only seven English words have objective case. These are *me*, *thee*, *him*, *her*, *us*, *them*, and *whom*. One cannot say that a noun, except by analogy with the pronouns, is in the objective case after a preposition. Another doubt is thrown upon the rule by the occasional literary use of *but I*, and a greater doubt by the fact that we regularly say *this garden of mine*, *that house of his*, *that car of Smith's*, using the possessive. Of course, this is merely a discussion of the propriety of using a certain wording — a discussion of little value. The thing of importance to the student is to know that prepositional phrases may use the common form of the noun, the possessive form of the noun, the objective case of the pronoun, or the possessive case of the pronoun, each as called for by the meaning one wishes to put into the sentence he is speaking or writing.

Questioned uses of the preposition. — When students enter college, they may have varied notions about usage, as to what is good and what is bad; but half of them have been convinced that a sentence must not end with a preposition. It seems to be one of the sardonic anomalies of teaching that with all their efforts the teachers do not succeed in getting their pupils to spell *all right* as two words or to discard the use *all the further* and *hadn't ought to*, and yet they easily teach them to abhor such a

perfectly respectable literary construction as a preposition at the end of a sentence. It is good; it has always been used; one can hardly read a dozen pages of worthy literature without seeing one or more examples of it. Who wants to turn a good, honest English sentence like "What did he ask for?" into a stilted bit of speech like "For what did he ask?" Professor Krapp[1] says of this rule:

> The rule was made in the face of the fact that, in actual speech and in writing, sentences do end with prepositions in certain constructions. The shifting of the preposition to the end of the sentence merely has the effect of emphasizing its adverbial value. In sentences containing a relative clause with the relative pronoun omitted, the sentence cannot end otherwise than with a preposition.
>
> *Where is the man you were to play with?*
> *This is the house I was born in.*

There is no good reason why there should not be an *onto* in good literary usage except that there isn't. We have *upon* and *into*. Why should we not make the compound *onto?* There are a few cases of it in literature, but the use is so rare in writing and in the speech of cultivated people that as yet it should be avoided.

Are *than me* and *than him* acceptable English? A very full and careful treatment of the whole question of *than whom, than me, than him, than her,* and *than them* is given by Hall[2] in which he cites good authorities both for and against the use of the objective, and in which he quotes examples of the objective use from the best writers. But because these examples are few and scattering he concludes that the nominative after *than* should be used. His concluding sentence is, "*Than I* is more

[1] *Modern English*, p. 318. [2] *English Usage*, pp. 291–296.

literary and far more common in standard authors; *than me* is only occasional, and should be avoided by the student." *Than* should be regarded as a conjunction, followed by a nominative, the subject of an elliptical clause.

He is taller than I (am tall).
She is younger than he (is young).

Teaching problems with prepositions. — Since the prepositions do not change their forms for any reason, there are few teaching problems beyond those of teaching students to recognize the prepositions so as to know when to use with them the objective forms of pronouns (or the possessive form of noun or pronoun, when ownership is implied in the phrase). The prepositions in common use are so few that this is not really a problem. Children whose mother tongue is English regularly use these correctly before they come to any formal study of language. Foreignisms such as "I got a pencil off of John" must be eliminated by drill and by making the child conscious of the error.

The conjunctions. — The conjunctions are of three kinds. We consider first the coördinate, which join words, phrases, and clauses of equal rank or value. The second group is made up of those which join subordinate clauses to the clauses on which they depend, but which have no other function than that of connective. These may be called the "simple" subordinate conjunctions, to distinguish them from the others, which have double functions. The third group are those subordinate conjunctions which not only connect the clauses of which they are parts but which also serve as pronouns or as

adverbs in their subordinate clauses. These are the conjunctive adverbs, and the conjunctive (relative) pronouns.

The coördinate conjunctions. — The common coördinate conjunctions are: *and, but, for, nor, or,* and the following pairs of words, *either . . . or, neither . . . nor, both . . . and,* and *not only . . . but also.*

Following are examples of coördinate conjunctions used to join words, phrases, and clauses of equal rank:

Words. They expect to visit England, Scotland, *and* Ireland during the summer.

Phrases. Books should be printed in clear type *and* on a good quality of paper.

Clauses. They could not find a good camping place when they were in the mountains *nor* when they were at the seashore.

Clauses. The book was small and thin, *but* the type was very clear.

"For" as a conjunction. — *For* is used both as a preposition and as a conjunction. When it is used as a conjunction it gives a cause or a reason. It is usually called a coördinate conjunction, but there is no good reason for that designation beyond the fact that the clause in which it is used is set off by a comma, as is the case with short *and* and *but* coördinate clauses. If one writes, "I went because my cousin insisted on my coming," one does not use a comma before this causal clause. But in the sentence with *for,* also giving a reason, the comma is used. "All bodies fall to earth, for they are drawn by gravitation."

Teaching the coördinate conjunction. — There are no teaching problems in connection with the coördinate conjunctions except a question now and then as to classification of a word, and classification as to whether it is coördinate or subordinate. In usage, one of the commonest speech faults of young children is what is called " the *and* habit," or " the run-on construction." Children begin speaking single words, and then use short, simple sentences. *And* is the first word with which they learn to carry on connected speech. The *and* habit is, therefore, quite natural, and to be expected in young children. Usually as children grow older and in their *thinking* find it desirable to subordinate parts of what they are saying to other parts, they come naturally into the use of the machinery of subordination — that is, the use of subordinate conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs, and relative pronouns.

Not infrequently, however, this natural childish habit is not discarded with the baby teeth as it should be. It persists through youth and even into manhood and womanhood. Sometimes it persists just as any habit, good or bad, persists; sometimes it remains, one suspects, because the youth or adult does not think any thoughts that call for complex sentences with their subordinations. A knowledge of the devices to secure subordination is the first part of the technic for the treatment of this linguistic ill. Practice in the use of it, awareness of lapses into the old habits, annoyance over these recurrences, satisfaction over a growing sense of mastery, are the steps of the way out. This is the old prescription, the application of the laws of learning so frequently

referred to in earlier chapters. The *and* habit is not an easy one to break. If a pupil has not the capacity to think subordinate clauses, all the teacher can do is to get him to omit his many *and's*, and to speak for the most part in disconnected simple sentences. In trying to break up the *and* habit teachers should be careful not to overdo the objection, not to leave the impression that *and* is never a good connective. It really is one of the best. It becomes objectionable only when it supplants all the rest. Teachers have very nearly succeeded in exterminating *got* from the language by persistently objecting to *have got* both when *got* is perfectly good and when its use is merely tautology — one more word than is necessary. *And* might easily come to suffer the same permanent eclipse, the same shadow on its good name.

Subordinate conjunctions with but one function. — *That* may have but one function in a subordinate clause, the connective function, as in *He declared that he had already seen the pictures;* or it may be a relative pronoun with the double function of pronoun and conjunction, as in *Here are some cups that were made in China a hundred years ago.* In this sentence *that* is not only the subordinate conjunction, but it is the pronoun subject of the subordinate clause as well. *That* is often omitted as a conjunction in substantive clauses; but, in such cases, it can always be supplied. Unlike *that*, most subordinate conjunctions have, aside from occasional exceptions in usage, some adverbial force.

Other subordinate conjunctions. — Other subordinate conjunctions in common use are *also, although, as, because,*

however, if, lest, nevertheless, notwithstanding, now, provided, since, so, still, than, then, therefore, though, unless, when, whereas, whereat, whereby, wherefor, wherefore, wherein, whereof, whereupon, wherever, whether, while, yet; and the correlative pairs, *although . . . yet, as . . . as, as . . . so, if . . . then, so . . . as, though . . . yet, whereas . . . therefore,* and *whether . . . or.*

Again one must say that the distinctions made in classifications as to usage are not always sharp, nor are they matters of any very great importance. Some of the conjunctions in this list may be used, at times, without any adverbial force in the subordinate clause. Others may sometimes be used as the connecting link between the coördinate clauses of a compound sentence (the words in the list above that may be so used are *however, moreover, therefore, then, yet, still, nevertheless,* and *notwithstanding*).

A number of the words in this list of conjunctions have already been referred to as adverbs in the chapter on adverbs. Sometimes they are merely adverbs with no conjunctive force, rarely conjunctions with no adverbial force, more frequently conjunctive adverbs. Historically most of them are developments from adverbs. Even conjunctions that seem purely coördinate sometimes become subordinate. *But* is usually a coördinate conjunction, but when it means *but that,* as in the sentence "Your uncle must not know but you are dead" (Shakespeare), it is subordinate.

Questioned usage. — Two questions of usage, in addition to those already considered under relative pronouns and prepositions, come up in connection with the conjunctions. The first of these is the use of *like* as a con-

junction. Historically, *like* is an adjective from the Old English adjective *gelic*. Its adjective nature is still apparent when we compare it, as *like, more like, most like,* or more rarely, *like, liker, likest.* We do not compare prepositions or conjunctions. But *like* in its modern use may be a preposition. Once in a while in literature one sees *like* used as a conjunction instead of *as*, and it is very commonly so used in speech both in England and America. This use is, however, a free colloquial one and is not in good standing among cultivated people. *Like* is properly used in the sentence, *That boy looks very much like his father*, but incorrectly in *That boy looks very much like his father looked at that age.* In the second sentence the conjunction should have been *as*.

The other question concerns the use of *so . . . as* and *as . . . as*. An artificial rule of grammar demands *as . . . as* when the sentence is affirmative and *so . . . as* when it is negative. The rule would call for *as . . . as* in the sentence, *She is just about as nearly right as he is*, and *so . . . as* in *She is not so near the truth as he is*. To reverse the order in this affirmative sentence would be awkward; but in the negative, one is just as good as the other. The rule has no reasonable foundation, and is not observed in standard speech and literature. It may be disregarded. These two words may occur in either order, depending upon which order sounds the better.

The interjections. — The least important of the eight parts of speech are the interjections. They do not combine with the other seven to form sentences. They are outside the bounds of whole-subject and whole-predicate. But doubtless they are the oldest spoken words. Before

speech became articulate, men gave cries of pain, of surprise, of awe, of pleasure.

A few words are regularly used as interjections in speech and literature. Such are *oh*, *ah*, *bah*, *pshaw*, *whew*, *fie*, *ha*, *aha*, *ha ha*, *ho*, *hey*, *hum*, *hem*, *alas*, *bravo*, and *lo*.

In addition to these almost any part of speech may be used in an exclamatory way, and so for the time become an interjection.

"Oh" and "O." — It is customary to write *O* when it is used in apostrophe, as in "O Thou, who has created all things," and "O Moon, dispelling the deep shadows." *Oh* is used as an individual exclamation. Both *Oh* and *O* are seen in poetry, but only *Oh* is seen in prose on the ordinary level. *O* in prose would be proper only when what is said has risen above the prosaic level and has become impassioned or poetic.

Punctuation. — The treatment of the punctuation of interjections and of that used in relation to conjunctions is reserved for the chapter on punctuation.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

There is nothing especially difficult about prepositions or conjunctions, but there are some very careful discriminations to make in the uses of these. These distinctions can be brought out only by citing many examples from standard literature. There are all together about eighty prepositions. It is suggested that three students divide these as equally as possible and observe in their reading how they are used.

There are about fifty conjunctions (coördinate, subordinate, and conjunctive adverbs). Two reports similar to the three suggested for

prepositions might be made on these, and an additional report on the conjunctive (relative) pronouns, making six reports in all for this chapter. As a source for material the student will do well to use Fernald's *Connectives of English Speech*.

The connectives indicated above appear in Dr. Fernald's book in alphabetical order with many quotations for each. The student will need to do little more than present a summary of what the author has found and supplement this with any independent observation to support or contradict Dr. Fernald's conclusions as to the usage of each of the words.

CHAPTER XXV

The Sentence

The final test. — The test of what one knows about grammar is the sentence. When one knows all about how to use the English sentence, he knows English grammar. After the careful study of words, which we have made in the preceding chapters, we have now to consider in this chapter and the chapter following how we make our sentences in English.

Sentence order. — In a noninflected language, sentence order is less flexible than in an inflected. The inflected languages, Latin, Greek, and to some extent German, show the relations of the words in their sentences pretty largely by their inflections — case endings, tense endings, and endings for gender, number, person, and mode. This is not saying that the words in these languages are thrown together promiscuously with no attention to a fixed order, but merely that there is in the inflected languages more freedom in the order of the arrangement of words than in English.

English depends upon its prepositions and its order of words to supplement the small amount of inflection still left to it, to keep its meanings from being ambiguous, and to make this word emphatic and that unemphatic in the sentence. A language totally lacking in inflections would necessarily have an almost unchanging order of words for its sentences.

The primary simple pattern. — The regular pattern for English sentences is *subject* followed by the *verb* and this by its *object complement*, or by a *predicate noun, pronoun*, or *adjective*. The order is subject + predicate + complement. The emphatic positions in a sentence are the end position and the beginning. When there are but two words in the sentence, neither can be said to occupy the more important position for there can be but one change of position by reversing the order.

The position of adjectives. — The adjective regularly precedes the noun it modifies. The order is *ripe apples*, not *apples ripe*. With numerals, however, there is an exception. We say *ten men* and the *tenth man* with the adjective before the noun, but in *chapter ten* the adjective follows. This happens regularly with cardinal numerals used as ordinals. It happens likewise when participles, still felt to be half-verbs, follow the nouns, as in *the position assumed by him, the day following the election*, and *the money required for the library*. In each case the adjective, if desired, can be shifted to the position before the noun, *the assumed position, the following day*, and *the required money*. When this is done, there is a shade of difference either in meaning or emphasis. A group of words used as a single adjective usually follows the noun, as *a man wise in his own conceit*, but even this would precede if it involved no awkwardness and were clear in meaning. Obviously we cannot say, *a wise in his own conceit man;* but we have the choice of saying, *his already wearied horse*, or *his horse, already wearied*.

When there are more adjectives than one modifying a single noun, generally the one most closely connected

with it is placed nearest and the others graded back in the order of their importance. *The three ancient wise men* is so arranged. The article is the least closely associated, the number next, the word *ancient* next, and the word that is most important, *wise*, beside the noun. Some shifting of the order is possible, but not much. One could say *the three men, ancient and wise*, or *the three wise ancient men*, or possibly *the ancient three wise men*. Each new arrangement leaves the impression of being strained or of not carrying quite the meaning of the first.

Two adjectives about equally balanced may be interchanged. It may be *the two first*, or *the first two*, *a sultry, depressing day*, or *a depressing, sultry day*.

Emphasis throws the adjective back toward the beginning of the sentence, as in *What a pity! Such a time!* etc.

The possessives always precede their nouns: *the farmer's cattle, the prince's brother*, etc.

Nouns as adjectives precede the nouns they modify: *King Charles, Officer McCollum, Captain Smith, Mr. Jones.*

The position of pronouns. — Pronouns in sentences occupy the place of nouns or adjectives. In dealing with the question of the relative positions of these, we have taken account of the position of the pronouns.

The position of the verb. — In the inflected languages the natural position of the verb is the important and emphatic place at the end of the sentence. Students who read German will recall sentences wandering through half a dozen lines of print and unexpectedly fetching up with *werden* at the end. The English order of subject, verb, and complement, the first law of English order, is the logical order of thinking. The other is more arti-

ficial. This order, of course, permits word, phrase, and clause modifiers to be inserted between these sentence elements so as to bring the modifier in proximity to the word it modifies. This proximity of elements and modifier is the second regular law of English sentence order. The verb may be followed by modifying adverbs, adverbial phrases, and adverbial clauses, thus removing the verb to a considerable distance from the end of the sentence while preserving the natural sequence of subject, verb, and complement.

The order of verb and subject is sometimes reversed in questions, and always by the use of the expletives *it* and *there*.

> Where are you going?
> Are these books yours?
> It has been decided to start early.
> There seems to be no doubt about that question.

The real subjects in the last two sentences are *to start early*, and *doubt*. The use of expletives gives the appearance of preserving the natural order, for the expletive looks like a subject. Questions do not always reverse the word-order; for example: *For whom was this gift intended?* But such questions do compel a choice between *who* and *whom*. The choice between *who* and *whom* in colloquial English is likely to fall upon *who* when it comes first in the sentence. *Who did you expect to meet you? Who did you send for?* but, *For whom are you waiting?* This last sentence is not colloquial.

The order of other words. — Proximity is the rule governing the place of adverbs, with the same plan for two or more adverbs as is followed for a series of adjec-

tives. The preposition, of course, occupies a fixed position at the head of the phrase which it helps to form, except when shifted to the end of the sentence. This matter has already been discussed.

Word stress in English. — In Old English the custom was to stress the root syllable of a word, but in nouns and adjectives or in verbs derived from nouns and adjectives it rested upon the first syllable of the word, whether root or prefix. In modern English the same general principle holds, with some modifications due to the influences of other languages, which have contributed words retaining their own accents or have combined in more intimate ways with English as did the French in the Middle English period. Since the stress on Old English words was on the root syllable, we see in the Middle English period the addition of prefixes leaving the stress where it had always been, that is, on the principal part or root syllable, as in *almighty* and *unknown*. This principle still holds in modern English for words that have come to us from Anglo-Saxon. The stress falls on the root syllable, which is, of course, the first syllable if there is no prefix, or on the syllable following the prefix in words made of a root word and a prefix. Exception is made, of course, of those native words which had weak stress on the first syllable originally, like *arise*, *become*, *forgive*, and *to-day*.

Words from other languages have sometimes retained their original stress and sometimes accepted the English custom of taking the accent on the first syllable. One should remember here that the tendency in English is to stress the root syllable and that this tendency extends

to words derived or borrowed from foreign languages, although in many cases such words have retained their foreign accent despite the tendency to move the stress forward toward the first syllable.

Stress within the sentence. — There are a number of interesting observations that might be made about the stress within the English sentences, but for our purpose the general governing rule will be sufficient. It is this: The strong stress in the sentence is placed upon the words which are in any way prominent. Weak stress is given to words which are subordinate in importance.

I am *sorry*, but I can *not* for the moment recall your *name*.
You could not *give* me a house and lot on that street.

The independent elements in English sentences. — The common saying is that a sentence consists of two parts only, the complete subject and the complete predicate; that is, the sentence consists of the subject and its adjuncts and modifiers and the predicate and its adjuncts and modifiers. This statement expresses the principle of sentence making. There are only the two parts — an assertion, or predication, and the subject of the assertion or predication — but this does not quite include all the possibilities of speech. When a sentence is divided into subject-part and predicate-part there may be a word or a phrase left over that does not combine with either the subject or predicate. Such a word or phrase is called an independent element. There are eight of these in good English usage, some entirely independent, and some, for example the appositive and pleonasm, loosely connected with the subject or with the complement of the predicate. These are:

1. *Vocatives* (sometimes called the " nominatives of address "). The function of these words is merely to call the attention of the one who is addressed.

Harry, will you please close the window?

These questions, *Mr. President*, have been often asked but never as yet satisfactorily answered.

What picture did you see at the art gallery this afternoon, *Mary*?

There is in each sentence a true subject beside the vocative which, as in the first sentence, might seem to be the subject. The name *vocative* is given to these " calling words " because the Latin word *voco* means *to call*. There is no reason for the term " nominative of address." These vocatives have no case. They are no more nominative than objective.

2. *Parenthetical expressions*. In writing or reporting conversation, it is customary to guide the reader or hearer by dropping into the direct quotation some " guide words " of one's own to indicate who at the moment is speaking, and to show something of the manner of the speech. The same thing is done when speaking or writing directly, not quoting from another or others.

"The line," insisted Charlotte, "is from Milton's *Lycidas* and not from *The Fairy Queen*."

These examples are, I am sure, quite appropriate as illustrations of the principle we are considering.

"They also serve who only stand and wait," he quoted, as he began his second hour in the line of students waiting to register.

In all of these sentences one might consider the parenthetical expression as the principal predication and all the main sentence as the object of the verb; but, so far as the thought is concerned, that would be placing what

is quite apparently the unimportant part of the sentence in the position of importance just to make the sentence analyzable according to a prearranged scheme. These expressions are outside the main scheme of the sentence. They are as if in parentheses. In another type of sentence they are actually written in parentheses.

> Education *in* a democracy is quite a different thing from education *for* democracy (I hold), even though the two expressions are sometimes interchanged.

Here the words *I hold* are in no way structurally associated with the sentence.

3. *Appositives.* A word in apposition is not a grammatical part of the subject or predicate, although it may mean the same thing as some noun in either the subject part or predicate part of the sentence.

> Alice Watson, *a student from Smith College*, visited her cousin, *Margaret Willing*, here last week.
>
> Benzine, *a petroleum product*, is excellent for dry cleaning.

4. *The responsives, "Yes" and "No."* *Yes* and *no*, when used to respond to questions, are independent of the sentence in which they occur. They are, in fact, condensed whole sentences themselves.

> Yes, I am sure you are right.
> No, they are not going until June.

No has also its adjective use, as in *There was no delay.* *Yes* is used like a noun in *She said yes.* In each of these cases these words are parts of the sentences, and not independent responsives.

5. *The expletives, "it" and "there."* *It* and *there*, when used to reverse the order of the subject and verb,

and thus take away the emphasis from the subject without unnecessarily bringing the verb into prominence, are mere "fillers," expletives. *It* loses its pronoun nature, and *there* its adverbial. They are sometimes called "anticipatory subjects" because they anticipate the real subject and warn the reader that the real subject will follow, though not in the usual and expected place.

It is quite a satisfaction to know that.
It is satisfying to know that.
It is good for us to be here.
There are many reasons given to support the plan.
There are peaches again this summer.

Notice the position of the real subject in each of the sentences. Rewriting the sentences with the real subject in the subject position followed by the verb leaves out the expletives altogether, showing thus that they have no force as pronouns or adverbs.

6. *Interjections, exclamations, preparatory words, and exclamatory nominatives.* All these are similar in form and all are outside the structure of the sentence.

Interjection.	Ah! at last the chimes are beginning to play.
Exclamation.	What an idea! That is quite impossible.
Preparatory word.	Why, you see, it was like this.
Exclamatory nominative.	I! Do you think I would say such a thing as that?

7. *The absolute construction* (sometimes called the "nominative absolute"). This construction is called "absolute" because it is *apart from* or *independent of*

the sentence. There is no reason to call it a nominative, however. The noun in it does not show any case form.

The climb being very long and steep, we decided to hire horses.
The day being cloudy, the picnic was postponed for a week.

8. *Pleonasm.* Pleonasm consists in preceding the subject pronoun by its equivalent noun. It is a literary device properly used only in rather elevated style.

Thy rod and thy staff, they comfort me.

Teaching problems. — It is quite unnecessary to have elementary or junior high school pupils able to recognize these eight independent elements by name. All that children need to know is that these expressions are outside the ordinary bounds of the sentence and that this remote relation is indicated by setting off all of these except the expletives by the use of commas. The exclamations may be set off by exclamation points or by commas, depending upon the intensity with which they are supposed to be said.

Children should be helped to discontinue the habit of using *John he, Mary she,* and *Mrs. Harris she* in a kind of vulgar pleonasm. Pleonasm is a poetic figure of speech properly used only when what is said is poetic, charged with imagination and feeling, to express some truly poetic conception.

Another common fault is the habit of overworking introductory words like *well, why,* or their vulgar contractions *'ull* or *w'y.* The occasional use of an introductory word as a device to get a sentence started without abruptness is permissible and desirable; but the

habit of always beginning a sentence or a paragraph with one of these is to be discouraged.

The final common error in the use of these words is that of shifting over from the permissible absolute construction, which gives a reason for doing something, to the bad dangling participle, which gives a blurred or untrue meaning to a sentence in which it occurs.

Absolute construction. Sleet having fallen during the night, the streets were unsafe for walking.

The dangling participle. Having finished reading my magazine, the library was closing for the night.

Pupils must be shown by example the proper use of the absolute construction, in which a substantive accompanies the participle, and the confusing use of it when no substantive accompanies the participle and there is no word in the independent clause for it to modify.

Sentence structure. — Much of the material in the remainder of this chapter and in the chapter following is elementary. The plan is to give this from the point of view of the prospective teacher of children. The children in the school will need to know in general the same facts that the teacher needs to be acquainted with, but the teacher's stock must be fuller than theirs, and she must have a knowledge both of the details of the subject and of teaching problems that do not concern the pupils directly.

The sentence. — The sentence is in essence a predication. The verb is the one indispensable word in it. The subject may be understood, but the verb cannot; it must be expressed. But whether the subject is understood or not, the sentence is typically a subject and a

predicate, a noun and a verb making a predication. These two words may be multiplied until the sentence covers half a printed page, but still there is no more to it than a subject and its modifiers, and a predicate and its modifiers — a complete subject and a complete predicate.

> *Come.* This is equivalent to the two words, *You come.*
> *Summer comes.* Two words making an assertion.
> *High in the trees over the tops of the houses the swelling buds of the maples showed the signs of the coming of summer.* Again two words make the assertion; *buds showed.*

Everything else in the long sentence, every word or phrase, is either an adjunct (joined to) or a modifier of the subject word or the predicate word. Children do not always see that. Young children should not be asked to see it; but school children who are of an age when speaking and writing in longer sentences than a few words is already their practice, or should be their regular practice, should be taught the structure of sentences through experience in consciously framing many sentences according to given patterns, and through practice in breaking up sentences, first into complete subject-part and complete predicate-part, and then into the smaller units.

This may be started by the pupil's writing out his own sentences or by his copying sentences from books and drawing a vertical line to mark off the subject-part, or complete subject, from the predicate-part, or complete predicate. Variety of sentence structure should keep such exercises from becoming automatic.

Subject	*Predicate*
Birds	fly.
The river	is deep.
The river below their house	is deep near the bank.
A false balance	is an abomination to the Lord.

It will soon become apparent that some sentences will need to be rearranged in order to make this division. Questions sometimes reverse the order of verb and subject or break up the predicate into two parts. The usual order of subject, verb, complement is changed for various reasons. The sentences that follow are first rearranged and then divided.

Dreamily glimmer the sails of ships on the distant horizon.

Subject	*Predicate*
The sails of ships	dreamily glimmer on the distant horizon.

Why were the parcels brought to the house?

Subject	*Predicate*
The parcels	were brought to the house why.

A beggar through the world am I.

Subject	*Predicate*
I	am a beggar through the world.

The simple subject and the simple predicate. — The next step is to recognize the two or more words in each sentence that make the assertion. In the sentences given here, they are:

Subject	*Predicate*
birds	fly
river	is
balance	is
sails	glimmer
parcels	were brought
I	am

Two kinds of sentences. — Sentences either make assertions, ask questions, or make requests. There is no value in the old classification of sentences as declarative, interrogative, exclamatory, and imperative. One does not need to use these terms in any functional study of sentences. The sentences which ask questions contain the same elements and maintain the same order of parts except for those in which the subject and predicate exchange positions or in which the verb phrase is separated, as in *Why has he not written the letter?* The sentence which makes a request or command differs from the asserting sentence only in that the subject is usually omitted. The exclaiming sentence may be in the form of a statement, a question, or a request. The best rule is to introduce no classifications or distinctions unless they serve a purpose in helping children to understand their language or to form their sentences.

The complements of the verb. — Some of the verbs and verb phrases standing alone make a complete predication (statement or question), but frequently it is necessary to add an adjective, a noun, or a pronoun to the verb or verb phrase to complete the predication. Neither *is* nor any of its forms standing alone can make a complete predication, except in the rare cases where it means *exists*. It is a connecting verb, a *copula*, and must be used along with another verb or a complement in order to make an assertion. Other verbs, like *run*, *sing*, *stand*, *jump*, *read*, and many more, are able to make their assertions without assistance.

The complement of the predicate may be defined as a word, or group of words, which combines with the verb

or verb phrase in such a way as to make a complete predication.

There are many ways of completing the predicates of sentences. It would not be necessary to call attention to the differences among these and to give them names if it were not that one must know them if he is going to be able to analyze his speech to see that it is in the form customarily used by careful speakers and writers. Again, the name is not the thing of importance. When one says "Starch makes cotton cloth stiff like linen," he may wish to analyze what he has said to see if it conforms to the laws of speech observed by good speakers and writers. If so, he needs to know the terms used by those who deal with language customs. For such needs a full treatment of the complements of predicate verbs is given here. Out of all these, however, the student below the senior high school needs to understand only the uses of the predicate noun, the predicate pronoun, the predicate adjective, the object, and the indirect object. It is true that all the other constructions are used by all, both old and young, who speak good idiomatic English; but children do not need to be able to analyze all the kinds of sentences they use. They need to know how to analyze the simply constructed type sentences into the large units of which they are made, and not to dissect them down to every word of which an intricate idiom is formed. Whether they can analyze these more difficult predicate complements into their component parts or not, the pupils need to become familiar with them by sight and to know that they are regular and acceptable forms of speech.

Predicate complete with a verb or verb phrase.	The birds *fly*. The pigeons *had been flying*.
Verbs requiring complements to make a complete predication.	The late flowers are *yellow*. (adjective) These flowers are *asters*. (noun) Marjorie picked some *asters*. (noun)

The complements with intransitive verbs. — School children should be familiar with the three complements that are used with intransitive verbs:

1. *The predicate noun.*	The book was a *novel*.
2. *The predicate pronoun.*	The book was *hers*.
The predicate pronoun.	That man was *I*.
3. *The predicate adjective.*	The leather was *brown*.

Observe that the predicate noun and pronoun complete the predicate by naming the same thing as the subject. *Book* and *novel* are the same thing in the first sentence. *The book* and *hers* (*her book*) mean the same thing, and this is also true of *man* and *I*. The adjective completes the predicate by modifying the subject, just as if the adjective preceded the noun, as in *brown leather*. The *-s* form of the possessive pronoun is used only in the predicate position or in a prepositional phrase without its accompanying noun. Although only the predicate adjective really names an attribute of the subject, all three of these, noun, pronoun, and adjective have been called *attribute* complements. It has seemed best here to employ the more accurately descriptive terms *predicate adjective, predicate pronoun*, and *predicate noun*.

The adverbial predicate. With verbs of condition and motion the qualifying force of the predicate adjective is often distributed between the subject and the verb.

> The president stands *firm* on the bonus bill.
> The boy came *running* up.
> The bell sounds *clear* and *full*.

Here the word is adjective in form, but in meaning it is part adjective and part adverb. *Firm* not only tells how the president stands but also what kind of man he is. That boy was a *running* boy, but the word also describes the manner of his coming. Not only did those bells *sound clear and full*, but they were *clear, full bells*. These are not to be confused with adverbs whose forms are the same as those of the corresponding adjectives. Their function here is both adjectival and adverbial in one word. This adverbial predicate does not raise any difficulty in speaking and writing, but sometimes in speaking or writing one has a doubt about the propriety of using it. Knowing its function and that it is in good use regularly will remove that doubt.

The cognate object. The term *object* is associated with the transitive verbs. We are accustomed to say that a transitive verb is one that requires an object. Oddly enough there are four regularly accepted constructions called "objects" or "objective" associated with the intransitive verb. One of these is the cognate object. *Cognate* means *related to*. Some intransitive verbs are followed by nouns related in both form and meaning to the verb in the sentence. These are called "cognate objects."

He ran the *race* (the running) creditably.
She sang her *song* (her singing) first.
Sleep the *sleep* that knows no waking.

The indefinite object. The word *it* without any antecedent sometimes follows an intransitive verb as if it were an object. It is, at least, not a predicate nominative pronoun, for it does not mean the same as the subject. It might be regarded as a part of the verb itself, just as the preposition in *got up* is a part of the verb. The two words together mean *arose*. So *footed it* means *walked*.

We footed it across the fields to Shottery.

Come and *trip it* as you go
On the light fantastic toe.

This construction, though not frequently seen or heard, is in good standing.

The reflexive object. We have reflexive pronouns made with *self*, as *himself*, *themselves*, etc. These are used as objects of transitive verbs, thus turning the action named by the verb back to the subject, the doer of the act. *He blamed himself for the accident.* There is a rarer reflexive, also approved, made with an intransitive verb and a pronoun without the word *self*. *He sat him down by the seaside and taught them.*

The factitive predicate adjective (*objective complement*). The word *factitive* means *causative*. There is in good usage a way of combining an adjective with an intransitive verb so as to make a kind of verb, transitive in its nature, out of the combination.

She sang her throat *hoarse*.

Here *sang hoarse* taken together, verb and adjective, are equivalent to *roughened* or *hoarsened,* if we had such words. These new words would be transitive verbs followed by an object, *throat.* Remember it is the *adjective* that is called the *factitive predicate adjective.* Those who call it an *objective complement* do so because it causes the intransitive verb to take an *object* complement.

The complements with transitive verbs. — Two of the complements used with transitive verbs should be understood by school children. The other two should simply be known as good usage, without going through any intricate analysis to explain them. The two common and simple constructions are the *object* (direct object or object complement) and the *indirect object.*

The object. The object is a noun or pronoun following a transitive verb. It is the recipient of the effect of any action started by the subject of the verb.

> The builders used concrete for the foundations.
> The club elected Mr. Morse.
> The secretary notified him.

When the pronoun is one that shows case by its forms, the objective case is used as object.

The indirect object. In the sentences, *The clerk handed me the book,* and *The clerk handed the book to me,* we have two constructions saying the same thing and both saying it in good English. In the first sentence *me* is the indirect object. A generation ago when every sentence had to be exactly analyzed, a *to* was supplied before the indirect object to make a phrase that would fit into a scheme of diagrams. That was not necessary. The indirect object has always been just as good a con-

struction as the construction with the prepositional phrase — sometimes better.

The factitive predicate adjective or noun (*objective complement*). We have seen that the intransitive verb may be followed by an adjective as factitive predicate. It may also be followed by a noun.

The team elected Harold captain.

This is as if the verb were the two words *elected captain*, or as if the two together meant *captained*, if there were such a verb. *Captain* is the factitive predicate noun. *Harold* is the object.

Starch makes cloth stiff.

Makes is a transitive verb, but starch does not make *cloth*. It merely *stiffens* it. Here the verb plus its adjective equals *stiffens*, a new transitive verb of which *cloth* is the object. *Stiff* is the factitive predicate adjective (objective complement) and *cloth* is the object.

When these active constructions are turned into passive verb phrases the factitive predicate word becomes the usual predicate adjective or predicate noun.

Cloth is made *stiff* by starch.
Harold was elected *captain* by them.

The retained object. There has been a good deal of opposition to the retained object. While it is not generally recognized, it is used by good writers and speakers. The reason for the objection can be seen by examining the three sentences below:

Her father gave *her* a watch.
A watch was given *to her* by her father.
She was given a watch by her father.

The first sentence is the usual active construction with an object after a transitive verb. The second sentence merely turns the first into the passive construction. In the third the object of the preposition in the passive construction is changed to a nominative and made the subject of a new passive verb phrase retaining a noun object as if it were active. This word *watch* is the retained object.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

1. Word Order.

   A fuller treatment of Word Order than is possible here is given in :

   SWEET, HENRY — *New English Grammar*, Part II, pp. 1–27.

2. Accent and Sentence Stress.

   SWEET, HENRY — *New English Grammar*, Part II, pp. 28–42.

3. Lessons in Sentence Analysis.

   Several lessons, enough to make sure that each student in the class understands the structure of ordinary sentences containing all the sentence-elements treated in this chapter, should be given here. Perhaps two or three recitation periods will be required for this, perhaps more. This will depend upon the proficiency of the students before they come to these studies.

CHAPTER XXVI

The Sentence — *Continued*

The typical sentence. — As has been seen, the typical sentence consists of a subject (a substantive) and a predicate (a verb), with these elements arranged in the order indicated. We have now seen in Chapter XXV all the kinds of complements a verb may have; we have seen that out of the twelve possible kinds of complements only the predicate noun, pronoun, and adjective, and the object and indirect object, are so common and so simple that school children should be taught to understand their grammatical construction in the sentence. There is but one topic left, the modifiers of the subject, the verb and its complement, to complete the study of the parts of the sentence.

Three definitions. — A *phrase* is a group of related words without a subject or predicate, capable of acting as a modifier or as one of the component elements of a sentence. Phrases may be composed of a preposition and its following noun or pronoun, of a participle and its complementary noun or pronoun, of an infinitive or gerund and its associated words, or of a verb and its auxiliaries (a verb phrase).

A *clause* is a group of words containing a subject and predicate used as a member of a complex or compound sentence. Clauses are used as substantives or modifiers.

Everything we say or write is expressed in sentences. A *sentence* is nothing more than a subject, a predicate verb, and (possibly) a predicate complement, together with the words, phrases, and clauses which may be attached to each of these three, to modify the meanings that the bare words would have.

The modifiers. — In form the modifiers of the subject, the verb, or the complement may be words, phrases, or clauses. In function they are either adjectives or adverbs. This means that a single word may limit the meaning or change the meaning of the noun or pronoun subject. This is what is meant when we say that one word modifies another. If it limits the meaning, it narrows the application so that it is specific rather than general. *This avenue* is a narrower, more limited, expression than the word *avenue* alone. *Avenue* is a general name which may be applied to any of the kind. *This avenue* applies to but one. It is *limited* to this one. Our notion of *avenue* is changed, modified, when the word *this* is prefixed to it. The words *broad* and *shady* would also modify (change) our general notion of *avenue* if prefixed to it.

The modifiers may be words, phrases, or clauses. These may serve as either adjectives or adverbs. A phrase may modify a subject noun. If it does so, it acts like an adjective by limiting the application of the noun or by naming some quality or condition of the noun, or by describing it. A word or a clause may do the same thing. Or if a word, phrase, or clause modifies the verb, it performs one of the functions of an adverb. It indicates the time of the action, the place, the cause, the

manner, the degree, the direction, the limits, or some other modification.

The teacher's problem. — The teacher will find it necessary to develop the idea of modifiers by using many sentences, some made of only two unmodified words, some of three, some of more than three, the extra words being supplied by the verb phrase. Then sentences with word modifiers of each of the parts should be written and analyzed to show how each of the modifying words serves as an adjective or an adverb. Examples of the kinds of sentences offered for analysis are shown below. Many such sentences should be supplied for practice. One of a kind is not enough to impress the idea.

Word modifiers. — The first three sentences have no modifying words.

1. Seeds sprout.
2. Bakers make cakes.
3. Carpenters have been building houses.

The next four sentences have single word modifiers for the subject, verb, and complement. Observe in what way these adjectives and adverbs modify the meanings of the words with which they are associated.

1. White crayons break easily.
2. Pretty blue fringed gentians were blooming everywhere.
3. The bright round moon shone steadily there.
4. These skillful bakers quickly bake delicious layer cakes.

The next five sentences or pairs of sentences show some of the uses of modifiers that need to be explained to children.

1. White cloud masses floated lazily by.
2. The timid child ran home.
3. The sturdy small boy walked four miles. Have you walked far?
4. The older children's game was quickly played. Their interest lagged.
5. This girl's loaf baked well.

This group is shown to make clear some of the idioms of the language in the most common use that do not readily submit to the formal parsing and analysis once practiced, but that are nevertheless perfectly regular and good in usage.

Cloud is usually a noun. Here in the first sentence it is an adjective modifier of the noun *masses*. Another way to account for it is to say that the noun subject is not *masses*, but *cloud masses*. Nouns very frequently are used as adjectives: *iron benches, leather goods, gold watches*, etc. *By*, usually a preposition, is an adverb modifying *floated*.

Home in the second sentence indicates the limit of motion or direction of motion. This is an adverb formation. It is not at all unusual to find nouns acting as adverbs. When they do this, they are called adverbs. The word *home* in this sentence takes the place of the real adverb *homeward* or of the phrase *to his home*. *Homeward* indicates the direction of an action, but *home* gives the direction and limit of the action.

In the third sentence the noun word *miles* is adverbial, in that it shows *measure of distance*, just as the recognized adverb *far* does in the question following. The older grammarians called such words as *miles* in that sentence and *hours*, in *They played two hours*, " adverbial ob-

jectives," because they stood in the objective position in the sentence and performed the function of adverbs.

The fourth sentence shows the possessive form of the noun used in its regular office of adjective modifier. *Their* in the sentence following the fourth shows the plural possessive pronoun also as an adjective. Adjectives are usually modified by adverbs, but the possessive form of the noun when used as an adjective takes adjective modifiers. *The* and *older* both modify *children's*.

The same thing is shown in the fifth sentence. Here the adjective modifier of the possessive form of the noun is a demonstrative adjective *this*, rather than the descriptive adjective *older* and the definite article *the*, as in the fourth group.

All these things should be shown to children and explained, so that they may come to use all such common constructions with full confidence that their language is in harmony with the best. The children themselves should have practice with many sentences in deciding what the functions of the modifying words in the sentence are.

Phrase modifiers. — The next step is to show how prepositional phrases modify the subject, the verb, or the predicate complement, thus serving as simple adjectives or adverbs. An adjective phrase is one which, like a single adjective, modifies a noun or a pronoun. An adverbial phrase is one which, like an adverb, modifies a verb, an adjective, a preposition, or another adverb. This defines these phrases according to their functions. As to structure, phrases are prepositional, participial, or infinitive.

1. *The delicate pink blossoms of the peach trees come early in the spring.* Here we have *blossoms* modified first by the three adjectives *the, delicate,* and *pink.* Then the subject is modified by the prepositional phrase *of the peach trees.* This phrase is equivalent to the single word *peach* in *peach blossoms.* It is merely an adjective. The verb *come* is modified by the single adverb *early,* and by the prepositional phrase *in the spring,* an adverbial modifier.

2. *The snow below the bare hills near our house lay in packed drifts of considerable depth.* This sentence is used to show that the principal words in modifying phrases may themselves be modified by adjectives or adverbs, or even by other phrases acting as adjectives or adverbs. *Below the hills* modifies *snow.* But *hills* is modified by two adjectives, *the* and *bare,* and by the phrase *near our house,* an adjective modifier made up of a preposition, a noun, and a possessive pronoun *our* modifying *house. In packed drifts* is a prepositional phrase modifying the verb *lay.* That makes it an adverb. But *drifts* is modified by a prepositional phrase *of considerable depth.* This is an adjective modifier.

3. The phrases made of participles and their completing words look more difficult as modifiers, but they really are not essentially different from the prepositional phrases.

There is an old willow tree standing on the shore of the lake. Both *willow* and *standing* are adjective modifiers of *tree,* although in form *willow* is a noun, and *standing* is the present participle of the verb *stand.*

The player, standing his racket against the bench, went

to get a drink of ginger ale. In this sentence a phrase is made of *standing his racket.* This is an adjective modifier of *player,* though it has some adverbial force. Notice that the participle is modified by a phrase *against the bench.* Since this last phrase modifies a verb by indicating the place of the action, it is adverbial.

4. *Having been industrious, Gerald found his examinations easy.* The participial phrase here is made from an intransitive verb and so does not take an object but an adjective complement. The whole phrase is an adjective modifier, modifying *Gerald.*

5. *Clara's reasons having been given, the manager granted her a short vacation.* The participial phrase here is in the absolute construction already described in another chapter. It does not modify any word in the main sentence, *the manager granted her a short vacation.*

6. *We met a man carrying a full basket of fine trout caught in the Laramie.* In this sentence the participial phrase *carrying a full basket* modifies man. It is an adjective modifier. *Of fine trout* is a prepositional phrase modifying the noun *basket,* and so is adjective in function. *Caught* is a past participle, here an adjective modifier of *trout.* But *caught* is itself modified by the prepositional phrase telling *where.* The phrase *in the Laramie* is adverbial.

Clause modifiers. — A complex sentence is one that contains one or more subordinate clauses. The clauses of a complex sentence are adjective or adverbial modifiers, just as word and phrase modifiers are.

1. *The Spitz dog that you saw on the porch belongs to Mr. Abbott.* The clause *that you saw on the porch* is an adjec-

tive modifier serving to limit the word *dog* to a particular one. The connecting word is *that*, a relative pronoun. *That* is both a connecting element and the object of the verb *saw*.

2. *Boys will not hang their hats where they can find them.* The clause in this sentence, *where they can find them*, is adverbial. It modifies the verb *will hang*. The connecting word is the conjunctive adverb *where*. As a subordinate conjunction, it connects the clause to the word that the whole adverbial clause of place modifies. As an adverb, it modifies the verb *can find*, in the subordinate clause.

3. *The interesting man with whom you have been talking is the celebrated Arctic explorer that the papers have said so much about.* This sentence is given to show how these word, phrase, and clause modifiers can all be used in the same sentences without obscuring the meaning or in any way becoming confusing.

A great deal of practice in recognizing modifiers of all these kinds — words, phrases, and clauses — should be given. This practice should consist of constructing sentences containing each of the kinds of modifiers and analyzing sentences constructed by others.

Phrases and clauses as substantives. — Lest students should be led to regard all phrases and clauses as modifiers, it seems best to show here how they may be used as nouns. Phrases used as substantives are infinitive or gerund phrases. The following sentences will illustrate all these uses.

Phrase as subject.	*To be happy* is his aim.
Phrase as predicate noun.	His aim is *to be happy*.

Phrase as object.	He sought *to be happy.*
Phrase in apposition with a noun.	His aim, *to be happy,* seemed to be realized at last.

In each case the noun *happiness* could be substituted for the whole infinitive phrase. This shows that the infinitive phrase is in reality a noun.

Phrase as subject.	*Carefully mending broken watches* was his trade.
Phrase as predicate noun.	His trade was *carefully mending broken watches.*
Phrase as object.	After that he began *carefully mending broken watches.*
Phrase in apposition with a noun.	He ceased working at his trade, *carefully mending broken watches.*

The last four sentences contain phrases built around gerunds. Gerunds are infinitives ending in *-ing* and are used just as the other infinitive with *to* is used.

Clauses are also used in the same four relations as nouns.

A clause as subject.	*What they sought in the new country* was religious freedom.
A clause as predicate noun.	The desire of the Pilgrims was *that they might have religious liberty.*
A clause as object.	After many hardships they obtained *what they desired.*
A clause in apposition with a noun.	Their greatest desire, *that they might have religious freedom,* was finally realized.

When such clauses are condensed, the verb loses its asserting force, the subject is omitted, and the resulting construction is an infinitive or gerund phrase.

The desire of the pilgrims was *to get religious freedom.*
Their great desire, *getting their freedom,* was realized at last.

Elliptical sentences. — Fortunately it is not always necessary to speak in sentences with all the parts of speech fully expressed. Our sentences are constructed according to somewhat regular patterns. Whenever the pattern for a sentence or for any one of its unit parts is well understood by everybody, a speaker uses only enough of that pattern to suggest the rest of it. Then these condensed forms themselves become patterns used by everybody. Many subordinate clauses beginning with *than* are always spoken thus. *He is taller than his father,* means *He is taller than his father is tall.* But no one would so finish the statement.

1. While speeding, he ran into a curb.
   While he was speeding, he ran into the curb.
2. You know that she likes you better than him.
   You know that she likes you better than she likes him.
3. Then, if ever, come perfect days.
   Then, if perfect days ever come, come perfect days.
4. Why such a hurry?
   Why are you in such a hurry?
5. Whose camera? Harvey's.
   Whose camera is this? It is Harvey's camera.
6. Which way here to Holton? To the left.
   Which way do we turn here to go to Holton? You turn to the left.
7. Is this racket any better than yours? Yes.
   Is this racket any better than your racket is good? Yes, this racket is better than mine is good.

Teachers sometimes insist that pupils should always answer in complete statements. These sentences show to what absurd lengths that requirement might be carried, and how convenient the elliptical sentence is,

how much time and unnecessary repetition it saves. Such repetition not only takes time, but it is wearisome and annoying. The hearer knows the last half long before the speaker can get it said, and so must wait with suspended interest until the speaker can catch up.

Whenever there is a doubt as to what form is correct to use, as there might be in the second sentence of the group on page 403, it is best to restate the sentence in the full form and see what would be required by it then.

Children should be encouraged to use the regular patterns of the elliptical sentence.

Compound sentences. — After studying the simple and complex sentences from all angles, there is nothing more to learn about compound sentences except how to join simple and complex sentences together by the use of coördinate conjunctions, or without any conjunctions at all. Young people get the notion sometimes that any two or more simple or complex sentences can be combined into a compound sentence merely by using a coördinate conjunction. This, of course, is an erroneous idea. The sentences must be harmonious before they can be joined. They must be similar in ideas, and not dissimilar in form.

Two or more similar sentences may be joined by one of the coördinate conjunctions, *and, but, for, or, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, not only . . . but also.*

Suddenly she lost all fear, and her voice became steady and strong.

Often we know what we ought to do, but we lack the resolution to do it.

Her voice became steady and strong, for she had lost all fear.

They must make their choice now, or the opportunity which was offered to them will pass.

Either the road to the right will lead to Waltham, or it will bring us back once more to Walden.

Neither was the color Henry chose accepted by the class, nor was the one proposed to the committee received with approval.

Not only may compound sentences be joined by coördinate conjunctions, but they may also be written without any conjunctions.

The last sentence, the one used to illustrate the use of *not only . . . but also,* is a statement of fact. Notice the two examples which follow.

Punctuation marks are convenient guides; they are necessary for clearness.

Cease to do evil ; learn to do well.

These reasons are clear enough ; all seem to understand them thoroughly.

Each of these sentences might just as well have been written as two simple sentences. Most writers would prefer to make simple sentences of them, beginning each with a capital letter and closing it with a period. They are, however, permissible compound sentences as written.

Sometimes the conjunctive adverb of the second clause happens to fall between the two clauses of a compound sentence. In such a case the conjunctive adverb seems to take upon itself the office of a coördinate conjunction. The conjunctive adverbs which may do that are: *moreover, therefore, however, since, so, accordingly, besides, also, thus, then, still,* and *otherwise.* These are not really coördinate conjunctions. Usually they are adverbs

used parenthetically, and the two independent clauses are written as was shown above without any conjunction. The following sentences will illustrate this.

1. After some deliberation, however, I decided to accept.
2. However, after some deliberation, I decided to accept.
3. The position was one I did not particularly care for; however, after some deliberation I decided to accept.

It will be observed that in the third sentence *however* is used exactly as it was in the second. There it had no appearance of being anything more than the parenthetical use of an adverb. It is the same in the second. Not all the uses of these conjunctive adverbs in sentences are quite so easily explained. Some of them seem to function actually as coördinate conjunctions.

A light snow covered the ground ; otherwise the cold would have damaged the crops.

Compound subjects, predicates, or complements. — A sentence may have one or more of its principal elements compounded and yet remain a simple or a complex sentence. *Gold, silver, lead, and tungsten are mined in Colorado.* There is a single verb making a single predication in this sentence. It is a simple sentence with a compound subject.

Silver and lead, which are mined in New Mexico, are refined in the smelters of Leadville. Here the subject is compound and is modified by a subordinate clause, but there is still only a single assertion made. This is a complex sentence with a compound subject.

Lead is mined, smelted, and cast into ingots in Leadville. In this sentence the subject is simple, but the predicate

is compound. Still we have a simple sentence. In like manner the predicate noun, adjective, or pronoun, or the object can be compounded; but so long as there is but one predication made, we still call it a simple sentence unless there happens to be a clause modifier for one or more of the elements of the sentence. In that case the sentence becomes complex. The final example given below is of a sentence, making but a single predication, with both the subject and the predicate modified by clauses.

Four clay tennis courts and a quarter-mile cinder track where the spring field events could be held were laid out in the vacant field that formerly belonged to the Williams estate. Such sentences can easily be turned into compound sentences by supplying an additional asserting verb. *Four clay courts for tennis were laid out at the time the gymnasium was built, and a quarter-mile cinder track was graded in the vacant field which formerly belonged to the Williams estate.*

SUGGESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

College students should be given a good deal of practice in constructing sentences based on all the patterns shown in this and the preceding chapter. They should have practice also in analyzing sentences written by others until they are familiar with the ways in which sentences are built. Any of the advanced grammars, that of Kittredge and Farley, for example, will provide plenty of material for practice. The author's *Little Grammar* contains a limited number of practice sentences arranged in the order given in the chapter.

CHAPTER XXVII

Punctuation

Purpose of punctuation. — The purpose of punctuation is by the use of a system of marks, or points, to guide the reader through written and printed pages so that he may understand what is written or printed as the author meant it. There is no exact system of punctuation followed by all writers and printers without variation, but the customs for the common types of sentences are so nearly uniform that the rules may profitably be taught to children in school and followed by them as they write. Speakers guide their hearers through their sentences and paragraphs by means of stress on words, by pauses in speaking, by movements of the eyes, the head, the hands, and the body. They have all of these means at their command that writing or print cannot make use of. As a substitute for these guides the punctuation marks have been devised. They are a comparatively modern invention. The oldest manuscripts extant have no such marks. In fact, not even the words were separated from each other. These manuscripts were copied by hand on vellum or parchment in capital letters in solid lines without space between the words. Only the consonants were written at first. Then dots or vowel points were placed in or above the places in the words where vowels should come, but with no indication as to

what vowel should go in, whether *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, or *u*. Still there were no punctuation marks to divide the manuscript into sentences or the sentences into parts. To appreciate the difficulty of reading such a manuscript one needs but to try to read a page of familiar English printed solidly in capital letters with vowels omitted.

The use of points appears in Greek manuscripts of the classic period, but no system approaching uniformity was made until printing had been invented, and reading had become fairly general and was no longer practiced exclusively by scholarly men. In the sixteenth century Aldus Manutius introduced a regular system of punctuation marks. The chief signs in his system and in the system we use to-day were borrowed from the Greek system of points, though the points in modern times do not always mean the same as they did in Greek manuscripts. The Greek question mark (;) has become our semicolon.

The authority for correct punctuation. — Usage is authority in punctuation, as it is in grammar. Most writers have fixed practices that they follow regularly, and each reputable publishing house has its own customs. The magazines and books edited and published by a given printing house follow the rules of that house. Among writers and printers there are slight variations one from another, but on the main points there is no material difference in practice. For example, all the printing houses follow the rule of separating words, phrases, and clauses in a series by inserting commas between the members of the series. But they do not all agree as to whether to separate the last two members when the coördinate conjunction is used between them.

Some printers regularly print, " roads, streets, and avenues " ; others print, " roads, streets and avenues." The reason given for the second arrangement is that the comma in the series, they say, takes the place of an omitted conjunction. Where the conjunction is actually printed, no comma can be justified. The other printer would say that the comma does not represent an omitted conjunction, but rather a pause in speaking, and that for clearness in meaning, to avoid a tendency to read the last two members of the series together as a unit, the comma should be inserted to keep them apart. He would say that the following sentence means two divisions of history when printed without the comma before the *and*. " That year I read Egyptian, Greek and Roman history." With the two commas it can mean nothing less than three divisions of history.

The larger publishing houses have, as a rule, style books, style sheets, or style cards to serve as guides to their compositors and proof readers. These style sheets cover all matters of form, including punctuation.

The customs of careful writers and of the recognized leaders in the printing of books and magazines set the standards for punctuation. They are the only authority. The writers usually follow the printers.

Economy in punctuation. — One of the older punctuation rules instructed the student to use a comma in a sentence wherever a distinct pause would be made in reading. This led to the use of commas even at the breathing points in a sentence ; and the general application of the principle made for the use of a great deal of unnecessary punctuation. The tendency now is toward

very strict economy in the use of punctuation marks, especially of the comma. This means in general that these marks are used only when they are necessary to make the meaning clear, only when they actually serve the reader as road signs as he travels down the way of the sentences through a paragraph. Necessity demands, however, that these signs be set up regularly in certain places. They are always necessary in these places to guide the reader, just as road signs are necessary at corners and branchings of the roads to guide travelers.

The common rules to be observed in punctuating, together with some suggestions to the teacher of the subject, are given in the sections that follow.

The period. — There are but two uses for the period. First, a period is used at the end of a statement or a command. Second, a period is used after an abbreviation.

The house faces Morningside Park.
Come in to see us when you can.
Dr. Matthews lives beside us.
His degree is Ph.D., not M.D.

A common mistake in using the period is that of using it at the end of a subordinate clause. This mistake arises not from a failure to remember the rule but from a failure to distinguish between a sentence and a subordinate clause. In order to punctuate with exactness and so to write manuscript which might be printed as written, one must really know grammar. One must be able to make sentences according to the patterns of grammar, and must be able also to analyze his own sentences. This is a reason for the study of grammar seldom advanced, but one that alone would justify the

study of formal English, even if there were no other reasons. The student who does not know a subordinate clause when he writes one, will be guilty of such punctuations as the following:

They could not work in the bindery. As they had not been taught to work with their hands.

While she was in Mexico. Copper mining was a very important industry.

Responses standardized by custom end with periods or other appropriate marks, although they may not be complete sentences.

Yes.	Really?
No.	Indeed!
To be sure.	Indeed?
By all means!	Yes, indeed.

The question mark. — A question mark has but three uses.

1. A question mark is used after a direct question.

What answer did you get?
How do you account for that?

The question mark is not used after an indirect question.

Mark asked what answer I had got.
She wanted to know how to account for that.

Both of these sentences are statements, not questions, even though they embody indirectly what were once direct questions.

2. In writing conversation a question mark may be placed at the end of a direct question even though that is not the end of the whole sentence.

"Where are you spending your vacation?" he asked.

Observe that no comma follows the question mark and that *he* begins with a small letter.

3. A question mark enclosed in parentheses may be included in the body of a sentence to indicate a doubt as to the facts of what is stated.

The first settlement in Mississippi was near Jackson (?) in 1690.

The use of a question mark within a sentence as a sign of humor or irony is very crude — not practiced by skilled writers at all. Humor that has to be labeled is not likely to be very humorous.

The comma. — Most of the punctuation problems center in the use of commas and semicolons. Those who write only a little use too many commas, use them in places where they do not belong, and use them always instead of the semicolon in places where it properly belongs. The nine rules governing the ordinary uses of these marks are easy to understand and regular in their application.

1. Use commas to set off vocatives, appositives, and other words inserted in sentences in a parenthetical way.

I declare, Henry, (*vocative*) I do not understand you.

This punctuation mark, the comma, (*appositive*) is frequently misplaced.

You know, of course, (*parenthetical*) about the election next Tuesday.

However, (*parenthetical*) special notices should be given to the voters.

There are many of these stock words and phrases thrown into sentences in this way. Some of them are: *I suppose, I presume, I imagine, however, moreover, to be sure, of course, therefore.* But note that they must be used in

this detached semiparenthetical way to require the commas. If used in their regular functions as integral parts of sentences they would not be thus set off. When they occur at the beginning or end of a sentence, one comma sets them off. In the midst of the sentence a comma must be used on each side of such an expression, as if it were enclosed in a pair of parentheses made of commas. The term *parenthetical expression* includes geographical names which explain other names, and introductory words in the form of mild interjections like *Waltham, Massachusetts, is near Boston,* and *Well, you did come, did you?* and *Why, that can't be true.*

2. Use a comma to separate the short, simple, coördinate clauses of a compound sentence when these are connected by one of the coördinate conjunctions, *and, but, for, or, either . . . or,* or *neither . . . nor.*

These glasses are for lemonade, but those are for orange juice.
Neither will this be taken, nor will the others be left.
My books are on the upper shelf, and yours are on the two below.
She was glad she had taken the umbrella, for it rained that night.

Do not write the comma after the conjunction in these and similar sentences.

3. Use a comma to set off an adverbial clause which precedes a main clause.

While they were driving through Massachusetts in their car, they came upon many places of historic interest.

Two or three hours after the party had started to climb, the mountain became too steep for horses.

While we were eating, a small boy, the son of one of the natives, came running toward our camp.

When the subordinate clause comes at the end of the sentence it is not set off unless there would be a confusion of meaning without the comma.

4. Use a comma between any two sentence elements that might be improperly read together if the comma were omitted.

I did not want to go, for Harry and May were tired.

5. Use commas to separate all the members of a series of words, phrases, or clauses.

Apples, peaches, and plums grow well in this county.

Our soil is good for raising wheat, for pasturing cattle, and for intensive farming.

You should acquaint yourself with the Spanish language if you wish to travel in Spain, if you wish to engage in business in Spain, or if you care to read Spanish literature.

The divergence of customs concerning the use of the comma in a series and the reasons for it were discussed at the beginning of the chapter.

6. Two adjectives almost parallel in meaning are separated by a comma. But if two or more adjectives are so different in meaning that the second seems to modify the noun plus the adjective nearest it, then no separation is made. We write: *A lazy, dreamy afternoon; A contented, happy girl;* but *A capable railway engineer; A big gray German police dog. Big* seems to modify the whole combination, *gray German police dog. Gray* seems to modify *German police dog.*

It is not easy to state this rule so as to be clear, but it is easy to practice it. When the adjectives are parallel

in meaning and should be separated, one naturally pauses between them when speaking them. Here is one place, at least, where the comma is used when there is a distinct pause.

7. A restrictive clause is one that points out or identifies or narrows the meaning of the noun it modifies. A nonrestrictive clause is one which merely adds information without changing the thought. The nonrestrictive clause is a special kind of semiparenthetical expression. The nonrestrictive clause is set off by a comma, or by two commas if it is written within the sentence rather than at the beginning or end.

Van Briggle pottery, which is made at Colorado Springs, is glazed in a number of beautiful colors.

The author of the Old Oaken Bucket, who lived near Scituate, Massachusetts, was an American poet.

The restrictive clause cannot be omitted from the sentence without changing the thought. It is never set off by commas.

He is the last of the settlers who came here in 1846.

They tried every chemical that had been suggested.

8. In writing conversation the author's guide words are set off by commas.

"This man," Melville assured us, "is the last of the settlers who came here in 1846."

The engineer declared, "Every chemical that has been suggested has already been tried."

"Every chemical that has been suggested has already been tried," declared the engineer.

"Why do you come here," inquired the agent, "unless you expect to buy property?"

"Who is the author of the poem?" inquired Faith.

The last example is included to show that no comma is used in addition to a question mark.

9. The absolute construction is set off by a comma.

> The river being deep and swift, the emigrants found it unwise to try to cross the ford.

Some cautions against the wrong use of commas. — 1. *The "comma splice."* One of the commonest faults in punctuation is that of trying to write two independent sentences together as a single sentence with only a comma between them, as in:

> They could not go on Thursday, they had to wait till Saturday.
> My vacation begins the first of June, doesn't yours?
> Mother and father want you to spend a week with us in the country, yes, indeed we all want you to come if you can.

The fault here is not in punctuation so much as it is a failure to recognize what a sentence is. The student who comes to have the feeling that *one* sentence contains *one* assertion will never use the comma splice to join together the things that nature never intended to have joined as one.

2. *The comma in indirect discourse.* Clauses in indirect discourse are not set off by commas.

> He said that all the chemicals suggested had been tried.
> Macbeth said that Duncan slept well after life's fitful fever.

3. Don't use commas unless you know some specific reason for using them. Don't fall into the comma habit, the habit of using a comma for slight pauses, or because you feel every little while that some punctuation mark should be used and that a comma is the least harmful if it happens to be wrong.

The semicolon. — The semicolon is used in general to separate independent clauses of a compound sentence in which the writer, recognizing grammatical independence, wishes to express a logical relationship.

1. The semicolon is used between the clauses of a compound sentence that are not joined by any coördinating conjunction.

> He brought in the parcel from the hall; he brought in all the morning mail.

Very rarely short, similarly constructed, related, but grammatically independent clauses are written with only commas between.

> He came, he saw, he departed.

2. Use a semicolon to separate the clauses of a compound sentence in which such an expression as *so*, *therefore*, *moreover*, *also*, *though*, *nevertheless*, or a similar word, comes between the independent clauses.

> A good deal of evidence was brought in; still there was some doubt about the matter.
>
> It could be arranged for them now; however, I am sure November would be a better time.

3. Coördinate clauses that are long and contain commas in one or both are often separated by semicolons to mark the main division in the sentence even when joined by one of the coördinate conjunctions, *and*, *but*, or *for*.

> Three ships belonging to the Brazilian line, after long delays, brought their cargoes to the Hoboken, New Jersey, docks; and there they were reloaded and despatched to Buenos Aires.

The semicolon is never used after the salutation of a letter; that is, it should not follow *Dear Sir, Dear Mr. Stevenson, Dear Cousin George,* etc.

The colon. — There are just three common uses of the colon. First, after the salutation in a letter; second, before a formal list of words or statements; and third, before an extended quotation.

Dear Sir: Dear Mr. Stevenson:

The colors appear in the following order: violet, indigo, blue, green, etc.

The chapter closed with a paragraph summing up the reasons for supporting the world court. It deserves quoting here in full:

"These considerations have shown, etc."

The Dash. — 1. The dash is properly used informally to enclose parts of a sentence that would be enclosed in parentheses in more formal writing.

This report that comes to me — of course, what I say here is confidential — will seriously damage his reputation.

2. A dash may also be used to indicate that a sentence is broken off before its original thought has been completed.

The train leaves — let me see that time-table, please.

The train leaves — can that be possible? — at four-fifteen instead of five-fifteen.

3. The dash may be used before an afterthought or a summarizing statement attached to the end of a sentence.

After the papers were read, after two long speeches, after several uninteresting debates — after endless delays of this kind, a vote was taken.

We want you to come over to the house this evening to listen to the radio program and to play bridge for an hour — do you play bridge?

The exclamation point. — The exclamation point is used only after interjections, and exclamatory words, phrases, or sentences when the feeling expressed is quite strong. Mildly exclamatory uses of these expressions are followed by commas only.

Parentheses. — 1. Parentheses are used to enclose matter foreign to the grammatical structure of the sentence. In cases of semiparenthetical matter one has a choice of using a pair of commas, a pair of dashes, or a pair of parentheses. The formality grows less from the commas to the parentheses.

2. Parentheses are used after number words to confirm in figures what has been written in words.

The amount asked was forty seven (47) dollars.

This device should not be used except in formal business and legal papers.

3. Parentheses should not be used to cancel a word written by mistake. Draw a line through such words.

Brackets. — The square brackets are used only for the purpose of enclosing matter in a quoted passage which was not said or written by the person who is being quoted. The following sentence is illustrative.

"This building," says the official guide book, "was designed by the most famous church architect (William Tierney) of that generation, and is the finest example [we do not agree with the author of the guide book] of Tudor design in the country."

Quotation marks. — Double quotation marks are used to enclose all the parts of a written or printed page that are directly quoted. Single quotation marks are used for a quotation within another quotation. If there should be a quotation within a quotation within a quotation, the third step would be to go back to the double marks again. Indirect quotations are not enclosed in quotation marks of any kind. When the main quotation and the quotation within the quotation happen to end at the same point, first the single and then the double marks must be used, making three, thus (' '').

When more than one paragraph is quoted, no marks are used at the ends of the paragraph till the end of the final paragraph, but marks are used at the beginning of each paragraph to remind the reader that the quotation is continuing.

Special attention may be called to words or sentences in a paragraph, to titles of books, stories, or articles, either by enclosing them in quotation marks or by printing them in italics. Underscoring in writing is a device to remind the printer to use italics.

When the end punctuation of a sentence consists of quotation marks and a period, the period is always placed inside the quotation marks. When quotation marks and a comma punctuate the end of a phrase or clause, the comma always precedes the quotation marks. Interrogation and exclamation points should be placed inside quotation marks only when they are a part of the quoted matter. The following sentences are correctly punctuated.

"The sleeping and the dead are but as pictures," said Macbeth.
I cannot imagine why he uses the word "pictures."
Do you think it should be "pictures"?
The professor asked, "When did you last read 'Macbeth'?"

The use of quotation marks in writing conversation involves a good deal of careful observation, especially when the guide words *he said* and the like are within the sentence rather than at one end or the other. The student learning to write must carefully observe the general rule to enclose in quotation marks all that is quoted and only that. No other rule will be necessary. The accurate use of quotation marks will come only with practice, but it is important enough to pay for the effort it will take to master it.

Teaching problems. — The mastery of the simple rules of punctuation is almost as necessary to the school child as is correct spelling and the use of correct verb and pronoun forms. A pupil who does not write, does not need to know punctuation; neither does he need to know how to spell. Of course, one who will write nothing but simple family or friendly letters all his life can get along with only the period and question mark as end punctuation. In the case of children of known limited intelligence we may assume that they will never need any other punctuation marks; but children of medium to high intelligence who go into any kind of business or social life above that of the most ordinary will need the simpler uses of the period, the question mark, the exclamation point, the comma, the semicolon, the colon, the dash, the parentheses, and the quotation marks.

When and where are they to learn these? The time

to learn end punctuation is the day when the child writes his first statement and his first question. The time to teach the comma to separate the words in a series is when the children write a series for the first time. In other words, punctuation should be taught as needed in writing. If it is thus taught, there will never be for the child who learns it that way any punctuation problem, for he will grow into the use of punctuation as he needs it. There will be the motive of actual need to make the learning satisfying. But like spelling, punctuation cannot be learned by using a mark in a given situation a single time. Again it is " over and over " till what he knows as an intellectual fact has become a habit in the neurones.

Of course, if punctuation has not been taught as the child was learning to write his sentences and paragraphs, the problem devolves upon the upper grade teacher or is passed on to the high school or college. It *can* be taught in the higher schools as an independent topic of study, but such teaching is like teaching the common words of spelling to children in their teens, who should have learned to spell those words long before. It is teaching against the odds raised by the dislike of a detached subject, and against wrong habits already fixed in the S–R bond system. Punctuation should be taught as a need for it arises in the kind of sentences the children are naturally making at a given time and in a given grade.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL PRACTICE IN PUNCTUATION

Any of the school and college handbooks of writing may be consulted for more detailed instruction about punctuation, but it will be

found that the information given in this chapter is a working equipment even for those who aspire to write for publication. There are legitimate variations from these rules, and these can be made when so doing will clarify the writer's meaning to the reader without offending the reader's sense of what is fitting. What variations are permissible can be learned only by practice in starting with the general rules and working out to unusual needs. The instances where the unusual is required are rare.

Two kinds of exercises are suggested to accompany the present chapter:

1. Punctuate groups of miscellaneous sentences assigned by the teacher of the course. The handbooks contain extended exercises of this kind involving all the uses of the punctuation marks. *The Sentence Book*, a pamphlet made to accompany Ward's *Sentence and Theme*, contains the most extensive practice exercises (about 1000 sentences) available for this kind of work. These are arranged progressively to cover all the points in punctuation.

2. The second type of exercise is to observe books and magazines to discover how closely they follow the "book" rules for punctuation, when and why they depart from or ignore the rules, etc. Keep lists of sentences that are apparently punctuated in contradiction to the rules. Submit these to the class to see if your fellow students can discover any common practice in punctuation not accounted for in the rules you have studied.

CHAPTER XXVIII

Common Errors

What formal English shall be taught in the elementary school? — Students of education have come to the conclusion that the way to make a curriculum for the elementary schools in a given subject is first to determine what the needs of elementary school children in that subject are, and then to proceed to assemble in the best order for learning and teaching those sections of the subject-matter that promise to supply the needs. This is the method of "job analysis" and course-making based upon the findings of the analysis. This method if applied to the course in arithmetic might discover that the average child, when he becomes a man, will never need to deal with any fractions but $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, and $\frac{2}{3}$, that his additions will not go beyond total sums of 60 or 100, that his mental arithmetic will be limited to problems in money, and that these will fall ninety-eight times out of a hundred within the limits of one dollar. A course of study based on this analysis would not include long multiplications, divisions, or additions. Its lessons in fractions would be limited to the fractions named, and with these applied to money in smaller amounts than one dollar. The arithmetic left in a curriculum made strictly to meet the specific needs revealed by the method of job analysis would probably be so limited in amount

and complexity that it could all be taught in the first four grades.

Similarly the courses of study made upon the findings of job analysis in spelling, reading, geography, and language would be very different from and very much simpler and shorter than those now in use in these subjects. This method of determining what the content of the curriculum shall be will without doubt be most valuable to the makers of courses of study. With formal discipline, transfer of training, abandoned except where there are identical or similar elements in the two fields where transfer is expected; with the repudiation of the old idea that a study is good because it is disagreeable and hard and therefore establishes the habit of conquering difficulties and accustoms the mind to clear thinking through intricate problems, we are in a fair way to lose a great deal of useless lumber from all the departments of the courses of study.

Educational specialists will do well, however, "to proceed with caution and under control," as a railroad man would say. It can be shown conclusively that no one in the ordinary walks of life ever uses cube root or has to determine the difference between "bank discount" and "true discount" on notes involving large sums of money, that the few who ever need the intricate mathematics of geography or astronomy can learn it in technical college courses or later in life when the actual need arises. No one would contend for these as a part of the elementary school curriculum. But it is a question whether it is fair to a child destined to live an intellectual life above the average to have his school studies

trimmed down to meet the demands which will come in life to the boy who will never rise above the level of a common laborer or the girl whose destiny is to be the wife of a laborer, or at best the wife of a clerk in a village store.

Job analysis applied to the teaching of grammar. — The assumption has been made that we could make a course in grammar to cover all the possible needs likely to arise in after-school life if we knew what errors in speech children actually make in their school years. Fourteen studies have been reported by Charters [1] covering sections, or the whole, of the field of spoken and written errors in English. The purpose of all the studies was to find out what errors in speaking and writing are made by school children. Some of the studies were limited to those errors which are violations of some rule in grammar, such as *he don't* for *he doesn't*. Others took account of all kinds of language faults, such as faulty pronunciation, beginning sentences with *well* or *w'y*, bad spelling, and the like. Some took account of only oral errors, one of only written, and some of both. One was a study of the errors of high school students and college freshmen. All the others were studies carried on in elementary schools.

The methods of collecting data vary somewhat, but generally they are much alike. In limited studies of oral errors the single investigator listens to the speech of children and notes all errors he hears. In the extensive studies, like those of Charters and Miller in the Kansas City schools, a great many teachers keep notes of errors heard within a limited period of time. (In Kansas City

[1] *Curriculum Construction*, Chapter XVII.

the time was from eight o'clock Monday morning, November 17, to four o'clock Friday, November 21.) The same methods are used for the written errors. One investigator may keep notes on all the errors in children's compositions that he sees throughout an extended period, or many teachers may collect papers written under free conditions during a limited period. (In the Kansas City study, the time was twenty school days.) A variation from these methods is that of stenographic notes of everything children say within a given limited period. This method was followed by only one of the studies, that of Randolph in the Speyer School in New York.

The method of tabulation. — There are several ways in which the tabulations can be made. In the limited studies, of course, the investigator can tabulate all the errors he has collected under heads determined by himself or just as they develop in the observation. The tabulations in the extended investigations involving thousands of pages of writing and thousands of oral errors of necessity must be made by many tabulators. These are usually the teachers who observe the errors or under whom the writing is done, with a summarizing of these partial results by a clearing committee or individual.

Eleven studies in children's errors. — 1. *The Wilson Study at Connorsville, Indiana.* This study collected 226 errors in grammar. The material was collected by teachers in the schools.

2. *The Charters and Miller Kansas City Study.* This was a large study revealing a total of 5883 oral and 10,554 written violations of the rules of grammar. The

oral errors were those collected by teachers in five school days, and the written those that occurred in 4819 written pages prepared in twenty school days. The papers from which the written errors were taken were first writings of compositions written by pupils who did not know that their papers were to be used for this study. The work was collected by the teachers and the rough first tabulations made by them.

3. *The Boise Study.* The study made at Boise, Idaho, by the Misses Earhart and Small, under the direction of Superintendent Meek, took account of oral errors only, but in both language and grammar. A preliminary study was made to determine what errors to look for and to be conscious of. Then the teachers did the observing.

4. *The Cincinnati Study.* Sears and Diebel collected through teachers in Cincinnati 2268 oral errors in both language and grammar.

5. *The Randolph Study.* Dr. Randolph, from stenographic reports of children's speech in the Speyer School, New York, collected 2954 oral errors in both language and grammar.

6–7. *Fillers and Jones.* Fillers at Bonham, Texas, and Jones at Columbia, Missouri, collected 500 oral errors each. The collections were made by teachers from written work.

8. *Richardson's Study.* At Hibbing, Minnesota, Richardson made an extensive collection of 10,191 oral errors in grammar. The collecting was done by teachers.

9. *The Detroit Study.* The teachers of the Detroit schools under the direction of Charters collected 11,207 oral errors in grammar.

10. *The Pittsburgh Study.* Charters at Pittsburgh directed a study of oral errors in grammar and language yielding a total of 25,376 errors.

11. *The Johnson Study.* The final study, that of Johnson at Kansas City, was of the written errors in both language and grammar made by twelve high school freshmen and sixty-six college freshmen.

An additional list of common errors. — The following is a list of errors made by putting together the items of two studies, — that made by Randolph in the Speyer School, New York, and the errors listed by Randolph and Cross in the Training School of Colorado Teachers College.

1. The "loose *and*," *an' nen, and so*, etc. — This is the habit of running all of one's speech together by using *and's* to connect the statements.

They all came in and got warm, and then put on their sweaters and went back and skated till nearly dark, and the boys had built up a big fire and it had burned down to a fine bed of coals and was just the thing to roast the wienies over.

2. Lack of "sentence sense." — Many people have no clear notion of what properly constitutes a sentence. This lack does not show itself much in speaking, but it is apparent to the eye in writing. It appears in two forms :

First, a writer will run two complete, independent statements together with no punctuation between, or with only a comma.

Cousin George came on the five o'clock train, this was quite a surprise to us.

This is the "comma splice."

Second, a writer will punctuate a phrase or a subordinate clause as if it were a sentence.

We had a good supper ready for him, though. When we had got through talking.

3. The habit of beginning sentences with *well* (*'ull*), *why* (*w'y*), etc.

4. Faulty pronunciation and enunciation of words frequently used. — No two boys or girls would be found to have the same set of troublesome words ; the lists overlap. One group of pupils used the following words in the faulty manner indicated.

WORD	MISPRONOUNCED	WORD	MISPRONOUNCED
from	frum	just	jist, *or* jest
was	wuz, *or* uz	been	ben
cause	cuz	come here	come 'eer
thought	thŏt	did you	ju
gets	gits	of	a, *or* u, *or* uv
picture	pitcher	about	'bout
pretty	purty	when	wen
can	kin	something	sumpin
catch	ketch	there	they
hungry	hongry	body	buddy
ate	et	then	'en
drowned	drownded	used to	useto
them	'em, *or* 'um	our	are
stole	stoled	have	hev
give me	gimme	wished	wushed
four	for	slept	slep
had	hed	across	acrost
told	tole	kind of	kinda
well	'ull	poems	pomes
why	w'y	geography	geogafy
want to	wanta	hundred	hunderd
going to	gona	understand	un'erstan'
once	onct	their	thur
men	min	got to	gotta
far	fur	do you	d'ye
root	rut	hallooed	hollered
you	yu	going	agoin', *or* goin'
all right	awright	scared	skeered
asked	ast	engine	injun

5. The "irrelevant *so*." — *So* is often used between two statements when the second is not a conclusion from the first.

I am going into the eighth grade this year, so school begins on the first Tuesday in September.

6. The "'cause-and-because" chain. — Some people, instead of connecting all their sentences with the "loose *and*" or *and so*, use *'cause* and *because* for the same purpose.

You can have a plain tailored hat for Sunday just as you can for week days, because I think black is a good color to wear with a tailored hat because you can wear it with any dress.

The second *because* is properly used in that place. It states a reason.

7. The false conditional. —

Wrong. *Three and four would be seven.*

8. Definition by using a time or place clause. —

Wrong. *An eclipse is when the earth is between the sun and moon.*
Measles are where you all break out in little red spots.

9. Wrong approach to a statement. —

Awkward beginning. *To stop bleeding, if you cut an artery, why you have to tie the artery.*

More direct beginning. *If you cut an artery, you must tie it to stop the bleeding.*

10. Wandering thought. — There are a number of expressions used in speech which indicate that the speaker has nothing clear in mind to say, or that the thought has escaped before being completed. Among these are:

(*a*) Beginning sentences with *Well — a, Why — a, W'y — a, Er*, etc.

(*b*) Breaking into a sentence with *And — a, Oh — a*, etc.

(*c*) Incoherent trailing off without completing a sentence. The speaker sometimes ends by saying, *and things, and everything, and all, and stuff*, or nothing at all.

They are savage and can't read — and — and things.

(*d*) The use of a vague *like*.

You take it and just scrub like.

Did you see a pencil like, with a case and the lead screwed in?

(*e*) Impossible double function given to some part of a sentence.

The first stick is fourteen inches long is the best length.

Here *fourteen inches long* is both the complement of the first *is* and the subject of the second.

11. Double negatives:

He didn't seem to see nothing.

I couldn't hardly get to school by nine o'clock.

12. Pleonasm and tautology. — The first of these faults consists usually of using two subjects, one a noun and the other a pronoun.

Harry he tried it next.

13. Vulgarisms. — There are words and forms of speech that are not used at all, in speech or writing, by cultured and educated people: *ain't, nairy, this here, hadn't ought of, hadn't orter, them there.*

14. Provincialisms. — Certain words and constructions which are not generally used in the English-speaking world, commonly occur in the oral speech in some limited section of the country. For example, the use of *like* as a conjunction, *You do not write like you did ten years ago;* and *some place* for *somewhere; all the farther* for *as far as*, etc.

15. Mistakes in the use of nouns:

(*a*) Wrong form of plural in writing.

(*b*) Wrong possessive form in writing.

16. Mistakes in the use of pronouns:

(*a*) Wrong form, such as *hisself, theirselves*, etc.

(*b*) Vague use of *it* without an antecedent.

It says in the book that coal is mined in Wyoming.

(*c*) Wrong case form — nominative for objective, etc.

(*d*) The *habit* of using *you* impersonally. This is bad only when it becomes a habit. Used occasionally for the sake of vividness, it is permissible.

(*e*) A pronoun with only a vague antecedent, or no antecedent at all.

17. Mistakes in the use of adjectives:

(*a*) Pronouns used for adjectives. *them boys.*

(*b*) Poor or unidiomatic choice of adjectives: *much* for *many*, *lot* for *many*, etc.

(*c*) Wrong use of comparative or superlative degree.

(*d*) Miscellaneous faults. *these kind of; they was* for *there was*, etc.

18. Mistakes in the use of verbs:

(*a*) Disagreement of the verb in person or number with the subject.

Each of the boys were present at noon.

Since *boys* is the nearest noun to the verb, by attraction it seems to affect one's choice of a verb. *Each*, the real subject, requires a singular verb.

(*b*) Present tense and past tense confused.

She run up and said.

She come to school late all last week.

(*c*) Past tense and past participle confused. This occurs only with a small group of about twenty troublesome verbs.

(*d*) Faulty sequence of tenses.

(*e*) Regular and irregular verb forms confused. *suspicioned* for *suspected*, *throwed* for *threw*, etc.

(*f*) Subjunctive disregarded in such expressions as, *if I were*, *if he were*, etc.

(*g*) Wrong verb used. *set* for *sit*, *laid* for *lay*, *can* for *may*.

(*h*) Indiscriminate use of *shall* and *will*, *should* and *would*.

(*i*) Telescoping words in pronouncing. *gotta* for *got to*, *gona* for *going to*, *hatta* for *have to*, etc.

What the studies reveal. — A summary of the studies in the elementary school reveals, as would naturally be expected, that the greater number of these errors violating some rule or other in grammar have to do with the wrong use of nominative and objective pronoun forms, and the misuse of verb forms. The table of errors from the Pittsburgh Study [1] is typical of the kinds of errors reported by teachers who observe the errors of children.

[1] Charters, W. W. — *Curriculum Construction*, p. 203.

Out of a total of 25,676 errors 56 per cent, or 14,451, were as follows:

was for *were*	1,555	errors
seen for *saw*	1,513	"
ain't	1,361	"
can for *may*	1,150	"
done for *did*	895	"
is for *are*	777	"
don't for *doesn't*	721	"
this here	684	"
John, he went	671	"
didn't have no	531	"
them things	479	"
that there	472	"
ain't got	443	"
have got	439	"
ain't got no	435	"
come for *came*	350	"
it was (is, ain't) me	340	"
why, there was	330	"
didn't do nothing	302	"
lay for *lie*	280	"
off for *from*	276	"
went for *gone*	245	"
give for *gave*	202	"
	14,451	errors

A comparison of the four most extensive studies,[1] those of Kansas City, Detroit, Hibbing, and Pittsburgh, shows a distribution of the errors made by school children to be as follows. The distributions are reported in percentages. For example, the first item means that the error, " Subject of the verb not in the nominative case," is accountable for 4 per cent of the errors in the Kansas City Study, 4 per cent in the Detroit, 3 per cent in the Hibbing, and 3 per cent in the Pittsburgh.

[1] Charters, W. W. — *Curriculum Construction*, p. 204.

COMPARISON OF PERCENTAGES IN ORAL ERRORS IN KANSAS CITY, DETROIT, HIBBING, AND PITTSBURGH

	Per Cent			
	K. C.	D.	H.	P.
Subject of the verb not in the nominative case	4	4	3	3
Predicate nominative not in the nominative case	2	1	1	2
Object of the verb or preposition not in the objective case	1	1	1	1
Wrong form of pronoun	2	2	3	2
First personal pronoun standing first	2	1	2	2
Failure of a pronoun to agree with its antecedent	0	1	1	1
Confusion of demonstrative adjective and personal pronoun	3	3	2	2
Failure of a verb to agree with its subject in number and person	14	12	9	13
Confusion of past and present tenses	2	12	7	3
Confusion of past tense and past participle	24	14	8	14
Wrong tense form	5	3	5	5
Wrong verb	12	18	20	18
Incorrect use of the mood	0	0	0	0
Confusion of comparative and superlative	1	1	1	1
Confusion of adjectives and adverbs	4	2	2	2
Misplaced modifiers	0	0	1	0
Double negatives	11	9	8	10
Confusion of preposition and conjunction	0	0	0	0
Syntactical redundance	10	15	21	16
Wrong part of speech due to similarity of sound	1	1	0	0
Confusion of prepositions				2
Pronunciation and enunciation				3
Adverb instead of negative form of verb			2	
Words omitted			1	
Miscellaneous			2	
(Total number of errors)	5,883	11,207	10,190	25,676

Details of the Johnson study.[1] — The study of the

[1] Johnson, R. I. — *The Persistency of Errors in English Composition*, School Review, October, 1917. Quoted by Charters, W. W. — *Curriculum Construction*, p. 208.

written errors of high school freshmen as compared with college freshmen was made from themes written under ordinary conditions without the writers' knowing that their papers were to be used for this study. The high school papers were written by 132 students and included 50,341 words. Sixty-six college freshmen supplied papers including 32,693 words. The kinds of errors and the numbers are shown in the table below.

TABLE

Showing (1) number of errors, (2) proportional ranking, (3) errors per ten thousand words, in themes of high school and college freshmen.

Class No.	Mistakes	High School Errors			College Errors		
		1	2	3	1	2	3
I	Case of pronouns . . .	11	14	2	2	14	1
II	Others in pronouns . . .	102	7	20	40	6	13
III	Verbs	93	8	18	32	7	11
IV	Adjectives and adverbs .	52	10	10	28	9	9
V	Prepositions and conjunctions	50	11	10	24	10	8
VI	Sentence structure . . .	220	4	44	32	8	11
VII	Clearness of meaning . .	46	12	9	17	12	6
VIII	Punctuation	232	2	27	100	3	33
IX	Apostrophe	150	6	30	75	5	25
X	Capitalization	196	5	39	120	2	40
XI	Careless omission or repetition	223	3	45	77	4	26
XII	Spelling	675	1	135	208	1	69
XIII	Quotation marks	25	13	5	9	13	3
XIV	Miscellaneous	85	9	17	23	11	8
	Totals	2160		43	787		24

In order of importance as indicated by frequency alone the high school errors are as follows:

Spelling, punctuation, careless omission or repetition, sentence structure, capitalization, apostrophe, pronoun errors outside of case errors, verbs, miscellaneous, prepositions and conjunctions, clearness of meaning, quotation marks, case of pronouns.

The college errors follow pretty closely the order of the high school errors as shown above. For an exact comparison of the order of college and high school errors see the table above.

Johnson concludes that the teaching emphasis should be placed upon these topics in the following order:

1. Mistakes in capitalization. 2. Mistakes in the use of the apostrophe. 3. Mistakes in punctuation. 4. Mistakes in the use of adjectives and adverbs. 5. Mistakes in spelling. 6. Mistakes in pronouns, not including the mistakes in case. 7. Careless omissions and repetitions. 8. Mistakes in the use of verbs. 9. Mistakes in the use of prepositions and conjunctions. 10. Sentence meaning not clear. 11. Sentence structure not grammatical. 12. Mistakes in the use of quotation marks. 13. Mistakes in the cases of pronouns.

A hasty examination of the Johnson comparisons of college and high school errors would seem to show that so far as eradicating the errors in writing is concerned the high school course in English composition is a failure. A closer examination, however, does not warrant so sweeping a conclusion. The teaching at best seems ineffectual enough, but it will be noted that each of the items except punctuation and capitalization shows a decrease in frequency, and that the whole list shows a decrease of from 43 errors in a thousand words for high school freshmen to 24 for college freshmen.

When one remembers that college freshmen are writing on more complex subjects than are high school freshmen, that their sentence structure and their thought give them a greater number of opportunities per page to make errors, and that these results are averaged, the case is not so discouraging. Doubtless some students come through the high school without learning anything about composition. Some may in the more complex writing of a college student even make a larger number of errors than they did as high school freshmen. Others may have eliminated all, or almost all, of their errors. The total results are thrown together to make averages. With some students the teaching may be ineffectual. With others it may be very effective. Using these averages and their totals shows a reduction of the number of errors amounting to nearly 45 per cent.

Conclusions from the studies. — The most natural conclusion to be drawn from these studies is that a list of common errors, not more than forty or fifty, could be made up, and that the only language teaching necessary could be based upon a series of exercises calculated to establish right habits to take the place of these wrong habits. This would be a very hasty and ill-advised conclusion. It assumes in the first place that the errors in the use of language are chiefly errors in choice of forms. That this is not the case is shown by Randolph's study. This study shows about half the errors, 1412 out of 2954, to be in faulty sentence structure. A course of study designed to establish correct habits of using personal pronouns and the verb forms might not affect the use of bad sentence structure at all.

There is a second and very serious fallacy in the assumption that the teachers who listen to and note children's errors, or observe and tabulate their written errors, see all the errors or even the most significant of them. Every English scholar knows that there are characteristic aversions among teachers that overshadow real errors or more significant errors. There is a form of speech called "schoolma'am English" that regularly prompts teachers to correct children for using locutions which are in good usage among literary men and have been so for many years. The characteristic examples of these aversions to good English usage are the war against the preposition at the end of the sentence, any kind of use of *have got*, any use of the split infinitive, or any kind of toleration of *it is me*. Many teachers who wage vain and ineffectual war against these uses of colloquial English often have no aversion to, and perhaps no consciousness of, the use of *like* as a conjunction, *than* as a preposition, *that* and *this* as adverbs, and the continuous flow of *and's* and *so's*, *'cause's* and *because's* as coördinate connectives between sentences that should be broken up into simple sentences or subordinated into clauses of complex sentences. These they do not hear because they themselves use them. One does not easily see faults or hear imperfections in speech if these same faults and imperfections are characteristic of his own daily speech habits. A teacher who writes *like* as a conjunction will never see it as a fault in the writing of her children. One who punctuates a phrase or subordinate clause as an independent sentence, one who connects all her sentences with *and* or *and so* or *so*, one who

habitually uses the "*because* chain" could not see these faults in the writing of others if she tried. They simply do not look wrong. Even when they are listed to be looked out for in making tabulations of errors, most of them will be missed by the teacher who uses them.

Perhaps it is uncharitable to make the assumption that the language of teachers is not perfect. Experience has shown only too plainly that the assumption, if uncharitable, is nevertheless true. Experienced teachers in college summer school classes are in too many cases less free from these errors than are the freshmen in these same classes. The teachers have acquired faulty habits in speaking and writing and have inherited teacher's aversions to certain good and acceptable forms of speech. The teacher is isolated with her language faults. The whole community looks to her as the arbiter of language. No one corrects her. Like the preacher who seldom hears any sermons but his own and so has none to pattern after, the teacher has only limited opportunity to model her language after standard patterns.

A fallacy in the studies. — The Kansas City (Charters and Miller) tabulation of oral and written errors records among its 5883 errors only fourteen cases of *like* as a conjunction. Now this expression is peculiarly common to the South and Middle West. It even occurs once or twice in the printed text of the report. No doubt a number of the teachers who collected and tabulated the errors used it. Unless Kansas City has worked some kind of linguistic miracle, it is almost certain that one listener would hear in the schoolroom and on the playground between eight in the morning and four in the

afternoon more than fourteen cases of this error in a single grade. This is not cited to show that the Kansas City study is faulty, but to warn against relying upon these studies solely to determine what should be included in a curriculum.

A second fallacy. — The studies of children's errors seem to assume that in school we can do nothing more than correct bad habits already acquired or guard against the formation of bad habits in the future. If that assumption were true, then the course of study could be based upon the kinds of formal errors children make in school, and the kinds adults make after the school years are over. But schools should be something more than places for the correction of bad habits. The teaching of language should give practice in sentence-making involving the types of sentences which adults use to express the ideas common to men and women in the stations in life which the children seem likely to grow into. Knowing how to form sentences even releases thoughts that could not be shaped without adequate moulds for their expression. The two are mutually helpful. One who has thoughts more subtle or more complex than the machinery at his command can express will seek a means to utter them. On the other hand, one whose means of expression have been perfected will find the flow of thought to be accelerated if he is not constantly troubled by the necessity of finding ways, as he thinks, to say what he thinks. These are language problems.

Grammar, the formal statement of our speech customs, serves a purpose usually lost sight of by those who dili-

gently follow the method of job analysis to determine what shall constitute the curriculum. It enables one to prejudge the correctness of sentences as he is speaking and writing. It gives him the freedom of expression which comes from knowing that he is speaking in accordance with the customary usage of refined and educated people. Grammar also gives the speaker or writer the power to look back over a sentence after it has been uttered and judge whether it is in acceptable form or not. These two functions must be added to those commonly recognized, before one proceeds with too much assurance to make up a course of study in grammar based upon errors alone.

School grammar should function. — What has just been said is not offered as a plea for the retention or restoration of all the old useless machinery of grammar so commonly taught a generation ago, and still taught more than we moderns are willing to admit. Any details of grammar that do not function should be discarded. Useful grammar may function as a means of correcting errors, as knowledge preventing the forming of errors, as knowledge enabling one to frame his sentences in accord with good usage or to criticize and judge his sentences after they are spoken or written.

A course of study based upon errors. — After a careful study of the kinds of errors made by the children of Kansas City, the following items were omitted from the course in grammar as it had been previously taught: "The exclamatory sentence, the conjunction, the appositive, the nominative of address, the nominative by exclamation, the objective complement, the adverbial

objective, the indefinite pronoun, the objective used as a substantive, the classification of adverbs, the noun clause, the conjunctive adverb, the retained objective, the modes (except possibly the subjunctive of *to be*), the infinitive (except the split infinitive), the objective subject, the participle (except the definition and present and past forms), the nominative absolute, and the gerund.[1]

No legitimate objection can be offered to most of these omissions. They are good riddance. But if a knowledge of the laws of language has anything to do with ability to learn to speak in complex sentences and in the terms and forms used by educated men and women and to judge one's own speech, one wonders how he is to get along without knowing the legitimate use of the appositive, the noun clause, the uses of the infinitive and gerund, the uses of the relative pronouns and conjunctive adverbs. Most of these items belong to the upper grades or to the high school, but they have a place somewhere in the curriculum. While the complex sentence is seldom used in the language of young children, it should be cultivated by older children and much used by educated adults.

The course of study for Kansas City schools based on errors, after these omissions had been made from the older grammar, is as follows:[2]

A. Nouns.
- (*a*) Definition.
- (*b*) Inflection — (1) number, (2) case [possessive], (3) gender [slight use].
- (*c*) Common and proper.

[1] Charters, W. W. — *Curriculum Construction*, p. 207. [2] *Ibid.*, p. 205.

(*d*) Syntax — (1) subject of a verb, (2) subjective complement, (3) object of verb or preposition, (4) the indirect object. (These are chiefly of use as an aid in the understanding of pronouns.)

B. Pronouns.
- (*a*) Definition.
- (*b*) Personal pronouns (case and person, gender, number).
- (*c*) Compound personal pronouns.
- (*d*) Relative pronouns (gender, case).

C. Adjectives.
- (*a*) Definition.
- (*b*) Demonstrative adjectives.
- (*c*) Cardinal and ordinal adjectives.
- (*d*) The derivation of proper adjectives.
- (*e*) Comparison of adjectives.

D. Verbs.
- (*a*) Definition.
- (*b*) Transitive and intransitive verbs.
- (*c*) Person.
- (*d*) Number.
- (*e*) Tense (particularly present, past, and past perfect).
- (*f*) *Shall* and *will.*
- (*g*) *Can* and *may.*
- (*h*) Mode (very slight).
- (*i*) Voice.
- (*j*) Past participles.
- (*k*) Infinitive (very slight) — split infinitive.

E. Adverbs.
- (*a*) Definition.
- (*b*) Comparison.

F. Prepositions.
- (*a*) Definition.
- (*b*) Government of case.

G. Conjunctions.
- (*a*) Definition.
- (*b*) Classification.

H. Misplaced modifiers.

I. Double negatives.
J. Syntactical redundance.
K. Spelling — when explainable by reference to grammar: *to*, a preposition ; *two*, an adjective ; and *too*, an adverb.
L. Sentence structure.
  (*a*) Definition of sentence.
  (*b*) How to write it. (Begins with capital letter. Ends with a period, exclamation mark, or interrogation mark.)
M. Parsing and analysis.
  (*a*) Definition of both.
  (*b*) Division of sentence into parts.
  (*c*) In general, the parsing will follow the elements outlined in the foregoing outline.
  (*d*) The extent to which the parsing will be carried should be determined by the errors of the children.

From this course such items as proper nouns, the gender of relative pronouns, cardinal and ordinal adjectives, the derivation of proper adjectives, the person of verbs, and the prohibition of the split infinitive could be omitted as either nonexistent or useless. There would still be enough grammar left in the course to make it worth the time that would be required to teach it quickly, thoroughly, and with judgment.

REFERENCES FOR DETAILED STUDY OF CHILDREN'S ERRORS

1. Charters, W. W. — *Curriculum Construction*, Chapter XVII.
2. Charters, W. W. — "Minimal Essentials in Elementary Language and Grammar," *Sixteenth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, pp. 85 to 110.
3. Hosic, James F. — "Minimal Essentials in English," *Fourteenth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education.
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CHAPTER XXIX

Aims and Practices in Teaching Grammar

The aims of the teaching of grammar. — Various claims have been set up as to the values to be derived from the study of grammar. Grammar has been defended (1) as a mental discipline, (2) as elementary logic, a training in logical reasoning, (3) as an aid to the appreciation of literature, (4) as a means of correcting one's defects in speech and writing, (5) as a means of shaping one's oral and written sentences according to the accepted conventions of speech.

Grammar as elementary logic, as the door to an understanding of the laws of thinking in an orderly way, does not now have many defenders among the modern, scientific students of education. Very few now contend that any hard and disagreeable mental task is good simply because it trains the mind to surmount obstacles and strengthens the will so that one after having overcome these smaller things becomes automatically master over many more difficult things; very few contend that this mental discipline develops the mind, strengthens it, and hardens it, as daily exercise with weights hardens and strengthens the muscles of the arms and back and makes them capable of loading bricks in a car or wielding a baseball bat. The scientific student of education

does not expect the mastery of the rules and practices of grammar to contribute much to the ability to make an engineer's calculations of the weight-carrying capacity of the girders of a bridge, or to the technical study of harmony in musical composition.

Educators are of the opinion, however, that a given study does contribute something to the mastery of another subject having similar elements in it. The mastery of French would make the study of Spanish or Italian easier than it would have been without a previous study of French; for these languages, all derived from Latin, have many elements in common. A study of the grammar of any one of the Indo-European languages would be a material aid to the study of any other language of that family, but not so great an aid as would be given in a study of Italian by a previous mastery of Spanish; or of Danish, by Norwegian. The theory is that one study contributes to a mastery of another in proportion to the number of elements they have in common. If this is true, a study of English grammar would contribute a good deal to the ease and accuracy with which German, French, Spanish, or Latin could be learned, for they all have common elements. They are all based upon the foundation of the general grammar of the Indo-European languages. But English and German, having a larger number of common elements than English and Latin, English and French, or English and Spanish, would be more susceptible to transfer than the other languages named.

The possible transfer of learning from a study of English grammar to the study of the grammar of some other

language would not in itself be sufficient grounds to warrant a long and careful study of grammar in the elementary schools. One had better put the time directly upon the language to be learned than to hope to transfer the knowledge acquired in a study of English grammar indirectly and at second hand to Latin or Spanish. The transfer, while possible, is not likely to be economical. If, however, a study of English grammar can be justified upon other grounds, the justification can be strengthened by the possibility of some transfer of knowledge and power when the student, if he ever does, takes up the study of another language.

The study thus far given to the matter does not encourage us teachers to believe that a child's appreciation of literature is greatly augmented by a knowledge of the laws of grammar. Now and then, perhaps, one who has an educated feeling for grammatical niceties may see how a literary artist has managed a sentence, and may get some such emotional response as comes from seeing artistic manipulation of materials, just as one responds to beauty of line in drawing or sculpture, or contrast of color in painting, or harmony of chords in music. This kind of appreciation, while possible, is evidently not common enough to warrant the retention of grammar in the curriculum for that alone. When such rare appreciation comes, when it comes because a child happens to know the laws of grammar and sees in the sentence in literature a harmonious embodiment of thought and the laws of speech, then let the teacher be glad, let her accept this as an added reason for the study of grammar in the case of that particular child; but let her beware of the fallacy

of building upon the one case a justification of grammar for everybody on the grounds that it trains children to appreciate literature.

Grammar in the schools must be justified, if at all, on the grounds that it is an aid in breaking up faulty speech habits and bad practice in writing; that it puts into the child's hands the tools of a skilled workman and teaches him how to use them in shaping his sentences; that it enables him to glance forward as he is constructing a sentence and to judge in advance of the utterance what is the correct form or word to be used, the acceptable sentence to be employed for emphasis, subordination, and clearness; that it enables him to judge for himself what he has said or written, without having to await the criticism of others or to drift on in doubt and anxiety without any criticism; that it gives a speaker the confidence of knowing that he can use, and is using, the English language as it is spoken and written by the great majority of cultivated and educated men and women. Lacking this confidence, only the ignorant man, oblivious of his crude language, dares to appear as a speaker in public places, or to try to present his thoughts, on the printed pages of newspapers, magazines, or books. Grammar study can be, and is, fully justified on these grounds.

Past practice. — One of the grammars used a generation ago in the public schools contained the following sentence to be analyzed, parsed, and diagramed by eighth-grade students: "Not many generations ago, there where you now sit, circled by all that exalts and embellishes civilized life, the rank thistle nodded in the wind, and the wild fox dug his hole unscared." That is

a good English sentence. It is literary. But it is not a good sentence for eighth-grade children to parse. The structure is too complex. The knowledge required to parse every one of the words in detail is not such knowledge as is demanded in the grammar course in the elementary school. Some of the technic used in parsing was not only useless but imaginary and untrue. Instead of frankly recognizing that *not many generations ago* is a group of words used as if it were an adverb, the pupil was expected to make it " regular " by supplying a preposition so as to make it read *in not many generations ago.* This was, of course, absurd. Nobody ever said any such nonsense as that. Case was given to *thistle* and *fox.* Number and person were given to the verbs *nodded* and *dug*, verbs that have neither number nor person. Gender was given to the nouns *generations, life, thistle, wind, fox*, and *hole.* The conjugation of the verbs was required, and also their classification as transitive and intransitive, regular and irregular.

The whole study of grammar was the memorizing of rules, the analysis of sentences, the parsing of words, and the making of diagrams. There was no application of the laws of speech in the form of oral or written composition. Students went through all the school grades without ever having written a paragraph. Strangest of all, there was no effort made, except by the unusual teacher here and there, to use the grammar lessons to help the children to break up bad speech habits or to form habits of speaking correctly. Grammar was a discipline, just as most of arithmetic was, a series of setting-up exercises, mental gymnastics.

What shall we teach? — If grammar can be justified on the grounds that a knowledge of the speech customs helps one to break up habits of crude and unacceptable speech, to shape his sentences in accordance with good usage, and to judge his own speech and writing for conventional correctness, then we may be able to decide what statements of the laws of speech, what descriptions of custom, will function in the education of a child. First, it should be quite clear that the formal study of language customs (that is, the study of grammar) is not for little children. All the oral and written lessons in language through at least the first six school grades should be inductive teaching, should give to children a knowledge of how words are used, what is good usage and what is not, through practice in speaking and writing. There is no good reason why a teacher in these grades should not use the terms of grammar, *noun, pronoun, verb, sentence, subject, predicate, clause,* etc., if the use comes in naturally. Sometimes to avoid the appearance of teaching formal grammar in the lower grades a teacher uses a long, uneconomical, descriptive phrase instead of coming out directly with *noun, subject,* or *predicate,* when both she and the children know the common technical word. That is false economy.

In these grades also it is often direct and economical to teach children why a certain form is used when a correction is being made. This can be done without going through a systematic course in grammar. If the teaching of language is carried forward from grade to grade by means of exercises in writing, increasing in complexity and difficulty as the child's capacity to think, as his desire

to frame less simple sentences grows, every useful, functioning rule of grammar will have been met before the pupil leaves the eighth grade. The rules of grammar, let us say it once more, are only descriptions of the customs followed by those who speak and write the language well.

Two kinds of exercises in composition are suggested. The first is the little paragraph of two or three or four simple sentences written by children in the primary grades. This increases in length, in complexity of sentence, and in complexity of paragraph through the grades, and should be kept up all through the elementary school. Correctness and accuracy are the aims in these short paragraphs. Pupils should be required to write as often as three times a week. The other type of composition is that of several pages, such as is involved in the longer projects of the schoolroom. The pupil will build up his habits of accuracy and correctness through his frequent short paragraphs. Less attention to the details of correctness will need to be given to the longer, but less frequent, oral and written efforts. Teaching expression through practice is one phase of language teaching. Another is the teaching of the observance of the customs of language.

All through the elementary school the two phases of language teaching should be kept together. The applications of grammar should be made while the child is practicing the art of speaking and writing. There the child learns grammar inductively. He is taught to say this, to write that, and in this manner to form his habits of speaking and writing. This is the ideal hoped for.

It is admitted here parenthetically that the actual results of teaching have not always been so happy. Even where the results of this type of teaching are approximately satisfactory, there remains something more to be done before the child leaves school. The child who has been taught to speak and write in accordance with standard usage needs to know the laws of good usage, needs to be armed with the *why*. We teach the reasons for things in arithmetic and geography, in hygiene and civics. Where there are reasons in the uses of language, the child should know them, and it is his right to have these reasons presented in an orderly way so that they may become fixed in his mind as the laws which govern the language he uses.

This is the line which separates the inductive teaching of language through composition, oral and written, from the systematic teaching of grammar. Composition is never done. A child does not learn composition so that one day he is able to say that he knows it, as he knows the multiplication table, and is through with it. Writing and speaking belong to the arts. But the laws of language which actually function in a child's speech are factual and can be learned like the multiplication table and passed by to make room for other studies.

If the customs of speech have been inductively and incidentally taught in the oral and written composition lessons with any kind of success through the grades up to the seventh, it is not unreasonable to expect that these useful, functional laws of grammar may be presented effectively and in logical order with adequate practice lessons in a half-year in the seventh or eighth grade and

reviewed in ten or twelve weeks a year after the first study is completed. When that study is thus pursued, it should not be blurred by diffused attention. It should be consecutive, well-taught grammar lessons.

Grammar in the junior high school. — The pupil who comes into the junior high school after having had several years of well-directed practice in composition has met all of the facts of gramma that he will need to know in school. He has applied them in his speaking and writing. Now, before he leaves school to go to work, or before he leave r high school for the senior, he should hav useful language customs presented to him in y way, in the manner usually disparagingly called al or *technical.* The modern teaching of grammar presents in a systematic way only those laws of language that function in guiding the speech and writing of children. *Functional grammar* is a better name for it than either *formal grammar* or *technical grammar.*

The items listed below are offered as having a place in the teaching of grammar from this functional point of view.

I. *The grammar of the sentence.*
   1. The sentence.
   2. The subject.
   3. The predicate.
   4. The commonly used independent elements.
   5. The predicate adjective, the predicate noun, the predicate pronoun.
   6. The object and indirect object.
   7. Word modifiers of the subject, predicate, and predicate complement.

8. Phrase modifiers.
9. Clause modifiers.
10. Subordinate clauses with *if, whether*, etc.
11. Subordinate clauses with *than, as*, etc.
12. Elliptical sentences.
13. Compound sentences.

II. *The parts of speech.*

1. Recognition of the parts of speech.
2. The noun.
   a. Individual names begin with capital letters.
   b. The formation of plurals.
   c. The use of the apostrophe to denote possession.
   d. The few gender nouns.
3. The pronouns.
   a. Personal pronouns.
   b. The forms of the personal pronouns to indicate person, number, gender, and case.
   c. Agreement of pronoun and noun antecedent in number and gender.
   d. Interrogative pronouns. Use.
   e. Relative pronouns. Use. Case forms of *who.*
   f. The uses of restrictive and nonrestrictive relative clauses.
   g. Demonstrative pronouns and demonstrative adjectives.
   h. Indefinite pronouns. (Emphasize the use of the apostrophe and *s* to denote possession.)
4. The adjective. Use. Comparison.
5. The adverb. Use. Comparison. Conjunctive adverbs.
6. The verb, transitive and intransitive.
   a. Principal parts of the few troublesome verbs.
   b. Tense forms and verb phrases.
   c. Agreement of the verb and noun in number and person.
   d. The participles. How used.
   e. The infinitive with *to* and the infinitive in *-ing* (the gerund). How used.
7. Prepositions. What they are. How used.
8. Coördinate conjunctions. What they are. How used.

Sentence building. — Memorizing rules is a part of the teaching method of the past. This was a device once relied upon exclusively to impress the knowledge of grammar upon the minds of learners. First, the rule was learned verbatim. Then examples in sentences were shown. Finally there was the parsing, the analyzing, and the diagraming of sentences illustrating the points taken up by the rules. A better method of teaching a custom of usage is that of sentence building. Suppose the problem is that of the agreement of the verb and subject in number. First, one may show a series of sentences in which the subject is a pronoun of the third person singular number. All of these will require the *-s* form of the verb in the present tense. The pupils may then be asked to construct several sentences with pronoun subjects and ending with verbs in the *-s* form. From the examples shown and the sentences made it will appear that there is agreement in person and number between the subject and verb when the verb is in the indicative mode, third person, and singular number. Further illustration will show that *is*, *was*, and *has* require that agreement, but no others except the solemn forms of the personal pronoun. Now the problem is to make a habit of using the few forms having this agreement. This can be done by having the pupils build many sentences using verbs in *-s*, and using *am*, *is*, *was*, and *has*. It can be further impressed by having pronoun subjects supplied in sentences written with a blank space where the subject should be, and by supplying verbs in sentences prepared for that purpose. The teaching problem is, first, to bring a situation before the pupils; second, to

teach the grammar — that is, to show the pupils what the usage is and then by sentence making and by practice in using the correct construction to make a habit of it, to make the customary usage a part of the fixed neurone connections.

Sentence analysis. — Many of the points in usage can be brought to the attention of pupils by means of the analysis of carefully selected sentences. Suppose the problem is to discover what the adverbial clause can do in sentences. Sentences illustrating the functions of these clauses may be shown something like these:

1. The guide asked us a question.
2. The guide asked us where we were going.
3. When we came to the gate, the guide asked us where we were going.
4. While we were waiting at the gate, the guide asked us where we were going.

Show in each case that the whole clause has the function of a single word in the sentence. In the second sentence, the clause takes the place of the noun object of *asked* in the first sentence. In the third sentence, the whole clause *when we came to the gate* takes the place of a single adverb, *then*. The same thing occurs in sentence four. Sentences for this kind of analysis should be very carefully selected so as not to introduce difficult and complicating elements that distract attention from the single purpose of the analysis. They should be simple and plain sentences. There are a great many idiomatic ways of speaking in the commonest language of everyday life that have so closely associated words in speech groups as to make them almost inseparable units. The joints

where they have been put together are so close as almost to defy recognition. To ask a child to take apart one of these speech groups that puzzles a linguist is both foolish and futile. It serves no purpose. He learns nothing about using the language by puzzling over the analysis of intricate sentences. He may, however, learn much about usage by seeing what office the sentence element he is studying at a given time fills in a number of wisely chosen sentences.

Sentence analysis may be complete, may cover all the elements of the sentences studied when the pupils have covered most of the items of sentence structure and are ready for reviews. Even then the sentences should not be intricate, nor should they involve difficulties the solution of which would not contribute to the child's mastery of sentence making. Solving intricate puzzles has some attraction, but in grammar it has no educational value.

Diagrams. — No piece of educational machinery has been so vigorously attacked and so heartily condemned as the diagram in grammar. Scientific students of education have opposed it. Superintendents of schools have banished it. Yet here it is again. Those in any field of study, in the professions, or in business, who wish to analyze a complex situation regularly resort to graphic representation. " Things seen are mightier than things heard " in advertising and engineering as well as in poetry. It would seem that the professor of education whose most subtle instrument is the graph would look with a friendly eye upon the grammarian's diagrams, for they are nothing more than an attempt to exhibit to

the eye the parts of a sentence and to show the interrelations of these parts to each other.

If the diagram had not been developed beyond the limits of its legitimate use as a device, there would probably have been no opposition to it. All a set of diagrams can be in grammar is a framework upon which the student may display the parts of a sentence. A merchant uses racks and frames upon which to display in his show window the goods he is offering for sale. But the racks and frames are unimportant. Diagrams came to be an end in themselves. The final exercise in a grammar lesson was once to diagram and parse some hard sentence. This was done with no idea that the whole process should culminate in clarifying usage, in teaching children how to speak, how a sentence is composed. A very elaborate and intricate technic of diagraming was constructed upon so narrow a foundation of usefulness that when it was attacked by the educators, it went down with a crash.

As a study of grammar comes back into the schools once more, chastened and speaking small, willing to serve, and not demanding the biggest and best room in the house of education, diagrams too are seen again. But the old technic is missing. They are no more than graphic representations to supplement oral analysis. They serve one purpose sometimes overlooked. They enable one to see at once *all* the relationships of the parts of the sentence to each other at one time. This is a real service to a beginner who loses contact with the subject while he is wrestling with a *than* clause in the second line of his sentence. Diagrams will probably be used again. Like the small hat, the diagram is "good again this year."

The length of the course in grammar. — Pupils who have been well taught through the elementary school, who have had practice under intelligent guidance in speaking and writing, who have met and understood the common terms used in talking about sentences and their parts, will not need a long course in grammar in the junior high school. To cover the ground outlined for elementary school grammar in this chapter, a half year or two thirds of a year in the seventh or eighth grade should be sufficient. This would be time enough not only to learn about the items in the course but to get enough practice in sentence study, sentence building, and sentence analysis (including the written analysis of diagrams) to give such pupils an intelligent understanding of English usage and to inspire respect for habits of speech in keeping with what they know to be the speech customs of educated and refined English-speaking people. A short review, not longer than a quarter or a third of a year, given during the year following the first study should be sufficient to complete the fixing process.

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CHAPTER XXX

The Psychology of Grammar Teaching

The psychology of the subject. — The psychology of the elementary school subjects is nothing more than the laws of learning applied to the teaching of those subjects. The psychology of the teaching of grammar is, therefore, the laws of learning, based upon the physiological nature of brain and nervous system, and the mechanics of their operation, applied to the teaching and learning of grammar. These principles of psychology could be learned as a section of a course in educational psychology or as a division of a more specific course in the psychology of the elementary school subjects. The principle upon which this book is made is, however, to present each phase of the teacher's problem of English teaching so that it is associated with all the rest. The materials to be taught to children, the teacher's margin of information, the teaching problems, the method, the place of the subject in the history of education, the studies made of the subject involving its educational values, the devices for measuring attainment and progress, and the psychology of the subject are included in the professional treatment of the subject-matter of formal English.[1]

The mechanism of the nervous system. — All of the hypotheses of thinking and learning are based upon the

[1] This does not mean, however, that the student is not advised to make a much more extensive study of the psychology of learning than can be given here.

building of a single nerve path from a sensation to a response. A stimulus makes an impression through a sense organ at the end of a sensory nerve. This impression is carried along the nerve to the spinal cord. There it is discharged across a *synapse* (open space) and picked up by the *dendrites* (bushy fibrils) which form the end of a motor neurone. This motor neurone carries the sensation out to its end and discharges it in a muscle or other response organ and thus stimulates it to some kind of action. The diagram below illustrates this path of a stimulus to a response.

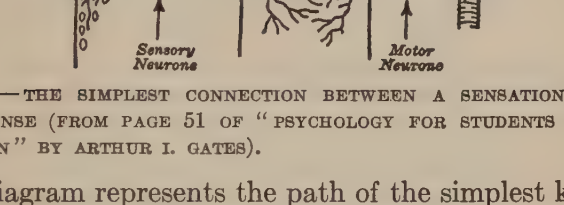

FIG. 7. — THE SIMPLEST CONNECTION BETWEEN A SENSATION AND A RESPONSE (FROM PAGE 51 OF "PSYCHOLOGY FOR STUDENTS OF EDUCATION" BY ARTHUR I. GATES).

The diagram represents the path of the simplest kind of sensation to the simplest kind of response. The point of a needle touches the skin of the hand. There the end organs of touch in the skin transmit the stimulation to the nerve fibers twined about them and these put the "stimulation or impression on the wire," as a telegrapher would say it. It goes to the spinal cord and is discharged there across a gap (synapse) and there picked up by the brush end of a motor neurone (dendrite) and passed along that neurone to a muscle, which contracts and thus draws the hand away from the needle. This is a simple reflex. The impression or stimulation is

not carried to the brain at all but is acted upon directly as it proceeds from the sense organ to the connection in the spinal cord and out to the muscle. The impression or stimulation always travels in the one direction from sense organ to responding organ, never backward. Contracting a muscle cannot telegraph a message back along the line and produce a sensation of a needle prick on the skin.

Several motor neurones, many in fact, may pick up the message of the needle prick when it reaches the spinal cord. The foot may twitch, the eyelids wink, even the speech organs may be stimulated to action by the same sensation. Among these the neurone most accessible, because most accustomed by frequency of use to respond to that sensation, makes the most decided response. This is the simple pattern for neurone action upon which the theory of all thinking and all learning is built. The more complex action, which we call thinking, involves connections not only in the spinal cord but in the higher levels of the nervous system, in the mid-brain, and the cerebral cortex.

As yet no one knows the nature of the impulse that flows along the neurone from the sense organ to the responding organ. No one knows exactly whether the synapse is a space that has to be jumped, a chemical opposition that has to be overcome, or an electrical adjustment that must be made. For purposes of illustration it may be assumed that it is a space, that the stimulus flows like an electric current and is obliged to jump across the space we call the synapse, and that with use of a given connection the synapse between the end fibrils is

narrowed or made easier to cross. When the mystery of nerve action is solved, it is not at all improbable that it will be found to be an electro-chemical process in living matter — bio-electro-chemical. But when that mystery is solved, we shall probably know what *life* is.

Although we do not yet know what light is or what electricity is, we do know how they act. We know some of the laws that govern them. We can predict in ordinary situations what will happen if light or electricity is manipulated in certain ways under certain conditions. In like manner we can see how neurone action takes place, we can know a great deal about stimuli and responses; we can formulate the laws of thinking and learning though we do not know just what stuff it is with which we are dealing. We cannot know just what a nerve current is.

The laws of learning. — The psychologists by experimentation have discovered a few of the fundamental laws of learning. The principal ones are these:[1] 1. The Law of Use. *Whenever a modifiable connection between a situation and a response is exercised, other things being equal, the strength of that connection is increased.* This means that as a path from situation to response is used over and over it becomes more and more easy to travel, just as one starting for a walk and coming to a place where three paths meet finds it easy to choose the path to the left after he has traveled that for ten days in succession and neglected the other two all that time. Whether this occurs by physically decreasing the dis-

[1] The statements of the laws of learning are quoted from A. I. Gates — *Psychology for Students of Education.*

tance between the ends of the nerve fibrils, or by building up a chemical friendliness between those ends, or by breaking down electrical opposition in the synapse, or by a combination of two or all three of these is not known and does not make any difference. The fact is that use makes the road easy to travel and the gap easy to bridge.

a. Frequency. *The more frequently a connection has been exercised, the stronger the connection.* This is a corollary to the Law of Use.

2. The Law of Disuse. *When a modifiable connection between a situation and a response is not exercised during a length of time, the strength of the connection is decreased.* This means that disuse acts as if it widened the space in the synapse, as if one on a walk came to a break in the path requiring some effort to cross by jumping. Practice makes the leap easy. Lack of practice makes it so difficult that usually one discontinues the walk at the gap rather than make the special effort to leap it. But one day, being hungry and observing that the wild plums on the other side are ripening, one makes a special effort and jumps the gap. Thereafter when the stimulus, the urge, the set of mind, is strong enough, when one is hungry and the plums are ripe, when one is warm and the shade on the other side inviting, one makes the effort required to cross. But, in general, disuse, neglect, weakens the tendency to follow a given path.

a. Recency. The corollary to the Law of Disuse is: *Other things being equal, the more recent the exercise, the stronger the connection between the situation and the response.* If you have neglected the use of the type-

writer for a month, you will use it less readily and less skillfully than if you have neglected it only a week.

3. The Law of Effect. *The individual tends to repeat and learn quickly those reactions which are accompanied or followed by a satisfying state of affairs. The individual tends not to repeat or learn quickly those reactions which are accompanied or followed by an annoying state of affairs.* If the wild plums were ripe and sweet and the shade refreshing, one would frequently cross the gap in the path; but if the plums were green, sour, and wormy, and if the only shady spot on the other side were infested with annoying insects, the inducement to cross over would be too weak to call forth the effort.

The summary. — In these three laws and their two corollaries we have in a general way the substance of psychology as it applies to learning. There remains nothing but to apply these to some of the problems arising in the teaching of grammar. The first question one would ask is concerning what is annoying and what is satisfying. Thorndike's answer to these questions is:

> When an instinct is ready to act, for it to act is satisfying. When an instinct is ready to act, for it not to act is annoying. When an instinct is unready to act, for it to act is annoying.[1]

A boy is taking the walk already described. He comes to the three paths. His feet may choose any one of the three. They choose the one most frequently and most recently traveled. He comes to the synapse (the break in the path). He has recently and frequently jumped over that. No special stimulus is required to induce him to jump it again to-day. He comes to the plum tree. The fruit is ripe, and his stomach empty. There is a

[1] Thorndike, E. L., *Educational Psychology*, Vol. II, p. 1.

decided " readiness " to take food. For him to act is satisfying. He eats a quantity of the ripe, sweet plums. A week later he takes the same walk and comes to the plum tree ravenously hungry. There is an unusual readiness to act. The plums are gone. Some one has picked the last of them to take home to make plum jelly. He cannot satisfy his hunger. Now the annoying thing is to be " set " for action, ready to act, and not to be able to act. A mile down the path where it joins the main road is a refreshment stand. He hurries along and, nearly famished, buys half a watermelon. At first, to act is satisfying. But as he eats, he finds this kind of action less satisfying than at first. A sense of economy drives him to try to eat all he has bought. At last he reaches the point where action in that direction is decidedly annoying, and so he leaves a big piece of his watermelon and goes on his way.

One other thing before we attempt to apply the laws of learning to the teaching of grammar. Ability to learn is an inborn, a native capacity, but learning does not take place except during activity.

Grammar and the laws of learning. — Already in the treatment of specific teaching problems the laws of learning have been invoked to point the way out of a difficulty. When a speech habit is to be established, the thing to be learned must first be put into a form which will evoke satisfaction in the learner. Annoyance must be avoided except the annoyance which will be associated with failure to learn. The pupils must be aroused to an active interest in the problem before them. None need hope to learn by inactive absorption.

What is seen to be useful promises satisfaction. — A state of readiness to learn on the part of the pupils is the first necessity. Any piece of grammar that is obviously useless can contribute very little satisfaction to a learner. External rewards for the learning of useless things may in part overcome the natural repugnance to that kind of exercise. Or the anticipation of greater annoyance at not learning than would come from the learning may induce some pupils to go through with a useless and unprofitable piece of business. For example, most modern teachers are convinced that there is no particular value to learning by memory all the verb forms and verb phrases of *to be* and *to love* that were once printed in the grammars to show all the forms possible for the modes, voices, tenses, persons, and numbers. Pupils may be in an active state of readiness to learn, but when they know how useless that memorizing is, they will develop a feeling of annoyance, producing unreadiness to learn. Readiness may again be induced by a promise of a half-holiday and a camp supper by the lake as soon as those six pages are memorized; or a willingness to make the effort to memorize them may be aroused by a threat of " keeping in " till the work is done. The latter is a case of willingness to learn induced by a prospect of greater annoyance at not learning than would result from the less annoying effort of learning useless material.

The topics of the grammar should, therefore, be gone through with care and those that are useless, and disagreeable because they are useless, eliminated. The usefulness of each of the topics retained should be made clear to the children. In the previous chapters an at-

tempt has been made to reduce grammar to what is true and useful — that is, to what is functional.

Suppose the topic for a lesson is the double negative. What satisfaction can be attached to learning to use but one negative, to avoiding " Nobody never told me nothing about it," and the like? In the first place it is a satisfaction to speak like those whom one looks up to and patterns after. Who uses the double negative? Only those whose misfortune it has been not to learn any better, the uneducated. Refined, educated people say " Nobody has ever told me anything about it." One kind of satisfaction comes from avoiding whatever is dissatisfying, embarrassing, and annoying. To continue to use the double negative after one has become aware that only the uneducated person uses it would be embarrassing. Imagine now that the children are in a state of mental activity, not mentally inert, and that to learn to use but a single negative in a sentence and to avoid the embarrassment of the crude double or triple negative had become satisfying. What next?

Remember that it is the familiar path that is automatically chosen. You start out for that walk. It was pleasant yesterday, has been so for the past ten days. If you had found it monotonous or had had disagreeable company the last two or three times you took it, you would pause when you came to the three possible ways to go. But it was pleasant, and you were always in good company when traveling it; so now without hesitation and without consciously choosing it you take the turn to the left. You have applied the Law of Use and Frequency, and you have found the effect satisfying.

The child who has over and over taken the single negative path will automatically turn into it and will find himself in the company of educated people.

But suppose that Mary has always said, " Nobody never told me nothing about it." She goes with the teacher down the single negative path every day for a week. Then the two begin other explorations. They try the road to " these books " and " those books " instead of the old path of the uneducated crowd to " them books," forgetting all about the single negative for a time. After ten days Mary, strolling alone, comes to the divided way. Off her guard she automatically chooses, " nobody never." The synapse between the new " nobody ever " had pulled apart in the ten days; and the old, intimate relation between *nobody* and *never* had again asserted itself.

This means that new habits cannot be exchanged for old by satisfaction and a simple agreement to the exchange. The new bond must be so made that it will supersede the old. Then it must be practiced, reviewed, and regularly used until the old habit is gone, until there is no bond to perpetuate the old habit. That, of course, is easy to say and hard to do. One who has habitually said " ain't got no " all through his boyhood and has learned in high school to say " hasn't any " may think that there is no bond left between the idea of being without a thing, and the words " ain't got no." But one day when he is speaking under some mental strain or embarrassment, when his attention is absorbed by the situation rather than fixed upon his language, the old bond will assert itself and he will say " ain't got no." Some

one has said that a child ought to be very careful in the selection of his grandparents if he wants to have a fine mind. The same will apply to good language. The child whose parents and grandparents have always spoken good English has a great advantage over one who has been obliged to overcome bad language habits after reaching the junior high school age.

Summary. — It would be unprofitable in this chapter to try to go through each of the topics to be taught in the grammar course and to apply the laws of learning to the teaching of each one. An example or two must suffice. By way of summarizing let us say once more what the procedure is: First, nothing should be taught unless it is true and useful. Second, the children must be ready to participate actively in the learning. Third, to learn the lesson must be made satisfying. Not to learn it may be annoying, but it is poor teaching that depends upon penalties for failure to learn to get the results which should come from the satisfaction of learning. Fourth, there should be practice in the use of the correct forms and neglect of the use of the incorrect until new bonds have become well established to take the place of the old. This practice should take the form of both oral and written language. Each supplements the other in fixing the new bonds. Fifth, there should be frequent reviews at intervals even after the teacher feels sure that the new speech habits have become fixed and the old bonds have faded out. This, of course, will occur if all new forms of knowledge, all right habits, are insisted upon constantly after they are once established. It will not do to be satisfied with having made the children aware of what good

usage is. That is only a starting point. From there they must go on to make over into habits what they know as mere information. Reviews after a lapse of a week or a month after the first teaching are necessary if the teacher wishes to insure the results of her teaching and to help the children fix the new and acceptable speech habits.

The psychology of the situation would also point to the futility of teaching correct usage in the schoolroom and doing nothing to prevent the children from lapsing into incorrect habits on the playground and at home. If the psychology of the S→R system is true, the attempt to erase "them there," "me and him done it," "lets you and me try it," the *and* habit, the "comma splice," the "*'cause* and *because* chain," and the rest of the common errors of children is hopeless if the pupils use the correct forms a half-dozen times in the classroom and the incorrect a hundred times at home and on the playground before they ever have an occasion to use the correct again. A hundred repetitions of the wrong form and six of the right will not carry the child very far forward. If new habits are to be fixed by use and the old ones allowed to fade out by disuse, the disuse of the old must be complete.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL READINGS AND REPORTS

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CHAPTER XXXI

Tests and Devices for Measuring the Results of English Teaching

The development of educational tests. — Since the publication of the *Ayres Measuring Scale for Handwriting*, the *Ayres Scale for Measuring Ability in Spelling*, and the *Hillegas Scale for Measurement of English Composition by Young People*, many educational scales and tests have been published to measure ability in the various school subjects, and an elaborate and intricate technic has been built up for making, standardizing, administering, scoring, and comparing these tests and scales. Already twelve arithmetic tests have been given a place in a standard textbook,[1] together with seventeen tests and scales in English, five in geography, seven in handwriting, five in history, seven in Latin, six in secondary school mathematics, seven in modern languages, twelve in reading, four in science, and six in spelling — a total of seventy-one. In addition to these, there are seven different batteries of educational tests intended to cover several subjects in a given grade or grades. Add to these the ten or a dozen individual intelligence tests, the fifteen or more group intelligence tests, and other standardized college entrance tests and examinations and

[1] Monroe, W. S., DeVoss, J. C., and Kelly, F. J. — *Educational Tests and Measurements*, Revised Edition.

one gets some notion of the rapid growth of the idea of "standard tests." All of this development in educational tests has come within ten or a dozen years, and the list grows constantly larger.

General tests and diagnostic tests. — Whenever a teacher wishes to find out in a general way whether progress is being made in a given subject, he may give a test at the beginning of the teaching, and a second form of the same test at the end or sometime while the work is progressing. Such a test may be of a general nature, but it will show whether progress is being made and how much. If, however, the teacher wishes to know what the deficiencies of his pupils are in a certain subject, arithmetic for example, it is necessary to use a diagnostic test. Such a test is devised to cover all the deficiencies in a given phase of arithmetic that are common to children of a given grade. After the test is given and scored, the teacher knows what deficits in knowledge are common to the greater number of children in the group and even what each child needs to be taught.

The possible errors in the use of pronoun forms are very few. A test can be devised easily and accurately to determine what errors out of the total possible number a child is susceptible to. This is an accurate diagnosis of the needs of that child so far as the teaching of pronoun forms is concerned. The test is a diagnostic test.

A test devised to evaluate the ability of a child in English composition can hardly be so specifically diagnostic. Composition is not measured by the observance of a few specific rules. Excellence or the lack of it can be judged

in part by the observance of certain fixed rules and the use of, or failure to use, certain forms. But it is not possible to make a set of rules so complete or to list the forms of writing so fully as to be able to evaluate a piece of writing upon the basis of those rules and forms. There are general values that cannot be measured, story values, diction, use of originality and imagination, and niceties in sentence structure that do not fall within the bounds of rules and forms. Composition tests are of necessity general.

It is, in fact, possible to make up a completely diagnostic test only in subjects or sections of subjects where the errors possible are comparatively few and are susceptible to being catalogued. This is not saying, however, that general tests are lacking in value or are less valuable than diagnostic. The diagnostic tests are limited in their possibilities and applications. The general tests are usually to some extent diagnostic. For example, a general test in arithmetic may be devised to determine the relative abilities of all the sixth grades in a city school system and to compare the standing of the sixth grades in that city with the averages of the other sixth grades throughout the country. This test is necessarily made up of additions, subtractions, multiplications, and divisions. While a test could not reveal all the possible defects, any such general test would show, for example, that the children in a certain room had not learned certain additions, certain multiplications, or certain processes, like long division. To the extent that the general test reveals these specific shortcomings it is really diagnostic.

The English tests. — The tests published thus far in English, exclusive of spelling, are of three kinds: (1) tests in literature, (2) tests in language and grammar, and (3) tests in composition.

Literature

1. Abbott-Trabue Exercises for Judging Poetry.
2. Van Wagenen Reading Scale for English Literature.

Composition

1. Courtis Standard Research Test in Composition.
2. Hillegas Scale for Measuring English Composition by Young People.
3. Hudelson English Composition Scale.
4. Hudelson Typical Composition Ability Scale.
5. Lewis English Composition Scales.
6. Nassau County Supplement to the Hillegas Scale.
7. Thorndike Extension of the Hillegas Scale.
8. Van Wagenen English Composition Scales.
9. Willing Scale for Measuring Written Composition.

Language and grammar

1. Briggs English Form Test.
2. Charters Diagnostic Language Tests.
3. Charters Diagnostic Language and Grammar Tests.
4. Cross English Test.
5. Kirby Grammar Test.
6. Pressey Diagnostic Tests in English Composition.
7. Starch Punctuation Test.
8. Wilson Language Error Test.

The tests in literature. — Literature is, of course, the most difficult phase of English to test. The test must be general. It cannot be diagnostic. And it must cover two very different kinds of abilities — comprehension and appreciation. Thus far only two attempts have

been made to construct such tests. The Van Wagenen [1] test is a test of comprehension. There are three forms of this test, each consisting of paragraphs selected from standard literature. A list of statements is given, some of which contain ideas expressed within the paragraph or derived from it. The pupil is asked to check those statements which apply to the paragraph. This is a test in understanding what is printed on a page, a test in comprehension only.

The other test in literature is aimed at appreciation alone. It is the Abbott-Trabue poetry test.[2] There are two parallel forms of the test, each consisting of thirteen exercises. Each exercise consists of four versions of a stanza or a short poem. One of these is the original in the form written by the poet. The other three are slightly different, either changed so as to be sentimental in diction, or prosaic in statement, or defective at some point in meter. The test consists in selecting out of the four versions that one having the highest literary value. Within the limits of its range the test is an excellent one. If one is justified in assuming that the same literary qualities appear in prose literature as in poetry, the test would carry over also to prose. It seems more likely, however, that out of all the possible literary values of prose and poetry the test selects only a few: sincerity, beauty of tone, feeling for the subtler rhythms, and apt choice of words. These may be the touchstone qualities that test all appreciation. Whether that is true or not would

[1] *Reading Scale for English Literature.* Forms A, B, and C. Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois.

[2] *Abbott-Trabue Exercises for Judging Poetry.* Series X and Series Y. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

have to be determined by extended tests and comparison in other literary types.

This test is apparently too subtle for the upper grades of the elementary school. Even for high school students its reliability is found to be only .44. This would indicate that it should be used only in high school classes of the upper years and only in classes in which the training in literary appreciation had been more than usually successful. It is primarily a test for college classes in poetry.

The composition tests. — The composition scales at bottom are similar to the first handwriting scale devised. A series of specimens of handwriting was produced and arranged so that the quality grew better from specimen to specimen as one ascended the scale, and the increase in " goodness " was in fairly uniform steps. A series of pieces of written composition is made in the same way, the lowest specimen being practically of zero value and the highest approximating perfection. The original scale thus made was the Hillegas [1] in 1912. There are ten of the compositions ranging in value from zero to 9.3. Three of the ten are artificial, five were written by high school pupils, and two by college freshmen.

A teacher who uses the Ayres Handwriting Scale compares the specimen written by the child with first one and then another of the parts of the test until she finds, for example, that the child's writing is better than number five on the scale and not so good as number seven.

[1] *Hillegas Scale for Measurement of English Composition by Young People*, Grades IV to XII. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

That is, it is nearest number six. The same thing is done with a specimen of composition as it is compared with the graded steps on the Hillegas Scale.

Obviously this kind of judging of quality cannot be as accurate as is that of form tests in grammar or number tests in arithmetic where an answer is either right or wrong, with no other possibility of a halfway or a quarterway between. Two teachers comparing the same piece of composition with the scale *might* not agree as to where to place it. One pays much attention to form and little to thought. The other pays little heed to form if the thought is good. One might rate a given piece alongside of four on the scale and the other as high as eight. These are the possibilities. In practice it was found that these variations do occur, but with well-trained teachers the tendency is to overcome those difficulties and to get better grading with the scale than without.

The Thorndike Extension of the Hillegas Scale.[1] — The extension of the Hillegas Scale made by Thorndike retained only a few of the original compositions. It gives several compositions instead of but one, at each level to represent that one degree of merit, and increases the number of degrees to fifteen, using a total of twenty-nine compositions for the fifteen steps. To make sure that one composition included in the scale was better than another, the author submitted the compositions proposed for the scale to a number of judges for evaluation. If two pieces, *A* and *B*, were being evaluated, *A*

[1] *The Thorndike Extension of the Hillegas Scale:* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

had to be considered the better by three out of four judges to be placed ahead of *B*. It will be seen that with fifteen standard qualities, instead of the original ten of the Hillegas Scale, the scale is more finely divided.

The Nassau County Supplement to the Hillegas Scale.[1] — The scale used in the survey of the schools of Nassau County, Long Island, made use of compositions written by children in the elementary school on one topic, *What I Should Like to Do Next Saturday.* The three original compositions at the top of the Hillegas Scale were retained, as were also the ten steps of the original scale.

The Hudelson Scales.[2] — The Hudelson Scales are made after the pattern of the Hillegas Scale except that in the newer forms there is a possibility of a closer comparison of the pupil's work with the material of the scale. *The Maximal Composition Ability Scale* consists of compositions written on the subject, *How I Learned a Lesson.* The second is based upon reproductions of a story. In the earlier scales of the Hillegas type the writing done by the pupil might be on topics quite different from that of the compositions in the scale. Here the pupils are writing on the same topic as that by which their compositions are to be judged. This makes it more likely that the teacher will be able to estimate the value of the

[1] *The Nassau County Supplement to the Hillegas Scale.* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

[2] *Hudelson English Composition Scale.* Grades IV to XII. World Book Company, Yonkers, New York.

Hudelson Typical Composition Ability Scale. Grades IV to XII, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois.

pupil's work than would be possible with the other arrangement. But it has another difference. The Hillegas Scale was a scale by which a teacher could grade the compositions of pupils on any subject on any day. The Hudelson Scales are tests to compare abilities of class with class, pupil with pupil, or a pupil or class with a norm, and not to be used as standards for grading compositions daily.

The Courtis Composition Test.[1] — The new Courtis test abandons the plan of judging each pupil's composition by trying it alongside the sample compositions which make up the scale until one is found of approximately the same general merit. Each composition of this test is a facsimile reproduction of a pupil's composition. Only one composition of the scale is printed on a sheet of paper. This is theme paper with nothing on the front of it except this facsimile reproduction. The pupils taking the test write upon the subject used in the scale. Then the sheets of the scale are mixed with the pupils' themes written on the same kind of theme paper as is used for the scale. Now the scorer reads the papers as she comes to them and places them in five piles according to her judgment of their value. If the sheets of the scale are found in the piles as she has ranked them and in the order of their predetermined value, the teacher has scored the papers satisfactorily. If not, the judgment of those who originally ranked the compositions of the scale is against her.

This test promises to be an excellent one for testing the results of teaching and good also for comparisons of

[1] *Courtis Standard Research Test in Composition.* S. A. Courtis, Detroit.

grade with grade and city with city. Like all the composition tests, it has the disadvantage of depending upon the personal judgment of the scorer, but it has probably reduced that element to a lower level than any of the " matching " tests.

The Willing Scale.[1] — The need of objective measurement in dealing with composition scales is everywhere recognized, but there is no way to get it. The Willing Scale uses a combination of objective measurement and the scorer's judgment. The scale was made by selecting samples from a large number of compositions written by children in grades four to eight inclusive, all using the same theme, *An Exciting Experience.* Errors in spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and grammar are counted. Thus far the tests can be marked " right " or " wrong " without resorting to opinion or personal judgment. This the author calls the " form value " of the pupil's test. Then the " story value " is judged, and the paper rated upon the basis of the two values. The scorer's judgment as he matches the pupil's work with the standard compositions must be relied upon for this part of the score. This is the only composition test described here that tries to separate the " form values " from the " general values."

The Lewis Composition Scales.[2] — The Lewis Scales differ from any of those thus far described in that they are devised to measure relative skill by the use of different types of composition. One scale is based upon

[1] *Willing Scale for Measuring English Composition.* Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois.

[2] *Lewis English Composition Scales.* Grades V to XII, World Book Company, Yonkers, New York.

simple business letters placing orders; another upon letters of application for a position; a third upon social letters of the narrative type; and the fourth upon one of the usual theme subjects for a narrative. The last is not essentially different in material from the other scales already noticed; but the other three introduce a new and valuable element — that is, a recognition of the three types of letters that are the only kind of writing practiced out of school by the large majority of those who are educated in the school.

The Van Wagenen Composition Scales.[1] — The Van Wagenen scales also differ as to the materials used. There is a scale for narration, one for description, and one for exposition. The Lewis material has more to recommend it than this, for there is a real need to write letters of the types used in the Lewis scales and a justification for measuring them by matching them against forms that have been standardized. The division of writing into narration, description, and exposition is largely an artificial division. These " types " of composition do not often appear distinctly separated in real life, and so most authors of recent textbooks in composition and language are giving them up in school life.

Copying and dictation tests. — Copying is apparently so simple a matter that it is usually assumed to be unnecessary to check for accuracy. Lessons are assigned to be copied from the blackboard. Problems in arithmetic are copied, and assignments for various lessons made thus. Many teachers have been annoyed by

[1] *Van Wagenen English Composition Scales*, Grades V to XII, World Book Company, Yonkers, New York.

pupils who do not copy their assignments accurately, but usually it has been assumed that the inability to copy accurately was peculiar to one pupil now and then but not a general characteristic. In 1914 a group of teachers in Boston [1] made a test to determine the extent of this failing and to measure individual inclinations in that direction. This test was given to 4494 high school freshmen. In copying one short page of 179 words these students made a total of 27,377 errors, an average of 6 errors each. Spelling accounted for 5876 of these errors. Omitted words came to 4077. Punctuation made another 5876.

It would be interesting to carry out the same test upon an exercise in writing from dictation, using the same selection to copy, to see how the errors in copying from print compare with the errors in copying from dictation. The comparison should be made both as to total errors and averages for a large number of students, and then it should be applied to individuals to determine what relation there is between the two propensities to inaccuracy in copying.

The grammar tests. — Eight tests have been published dealing with the forms and rules of grammar and the accurate use of language in sentences. These tests are as diverse in structure as are those devoted to composition. Some of them are general, some partially diagnostic, and some for a limited part of the language field make the claim of being completely diagnostic. The method of scoring, as would be expected, is more objec-

[1] *Determining a Standard in Accurate Copying*, School Document No. 2. Board of Education, Boston.

tive than is possible in composition tests. Since the kinds of errors in grammar and language are what they are, it is possible to make tests in which one choice will be right and another wrong; it is possible to take the scoring out of the realm of opinion and personal inclination and make it a matter of summing up the unquestioned " rights " and " wrongs."

The Briggs Test.[1] — For a limited range of forms the Briggs Form Test is an excellent one. It attempts to test only on seven of the common errors in writing: Initial capital letter, terminal period, terminal question mark, capital letter for proper names, the run-on sentence, the apostrophe for possessives, and the comma before *but* joining coördinate clauses. The sentences in the test are so arranged that the pupil has five opportunities to use each of the questioned forms correctly. It is very easy to score and is a valuable test as far as it goes.

The Charters Tests.[2]—There are two sets of the Charters Tests, the revised forms called *Diagnostic Language and Grammar Tests* including all the materials of the earlier forms except one of the Miscellaneous Tests of the older forms. The items covered in these tests are pronouns, verbs, and miscellaneous. Since the number of errors possible in the use of pronouns is limited, a completely diagnostic test can be made so far as those errors

[1] *Briggs English Form Test.* For Grades VII, VIII, and the High School. Two Forms, Alpha and Beta. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

[2] *Charters Diagnostic Language Tests.* Pronouns, Verbs, Miscellaneous *A*, and Miscellaneous *B*. Grades III to VIII. Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.

Charters Diagnostic Language and Grammar Tests. Pronouns, Verbs, and Miscellaneous. Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.

are concerned. After a pupil has been tested on his pronouns it is possible to say that he makes certain definite errors and therefore needs instruction and practice only in those uses of the pronoun. The same could be said of a whole school that had been thus tested. If it were shown that the only pronoun error at all common in the school was the use of "him and me" as subject, the teaching of pronouns could be limited to that one fault. Verbs might be treated in the same way, for there too the number of common errors is small, and they are known. But when one imagines that he has made a complete survey of all the errors children frequently make, one is perhaps too confident. It is very doubtful whether that has yet been done. A fairly adequate set of diagnostic tests in the forms of English is possible, but one should approach the word "complete" with modesty.

The Charters Tests require the supplying of correct forms in the sentences, most of which have an incorrect form, and the revised tests require the pupil to indicate also the rule of grammar involved in making the correction.

The tests have two forms so that a pupil may be tested twice on the same items without having the advantage of going over the same sentences. Thus his progress may be measured by giving the second form some time after the first to determine what results have been obtained by the teaching between the times of giving the tests. Grade norms have been established for all the grades from the third through the eighth for all the four forms of the older test.

The Cross Test.[1] — The Cross English Test is a form test, diagnostic in a limited way, but intended to be a general or survey test to show ability to use English forms, to measure the results of teaching, and to compare class with class or school with school. Thus far it has been standardized only for high school seniors and college freshmen. The sentences used in the tests, however, are sufficiently simple to be used through the junior and senior high schools. There are three forms, A, B, and C, tested for reliability and equivalence. Each form consists of parts involving spelling, pronunciation, pronoun forms, verb forms, recognizing a sentence, punctuation, idioms, and miscellaneous faulty expressions. The test is entirely objective. The student indicates all his choices by check marks, and the scorer is not required to write anything, or exercise his judgment in any way, as he chooses "right" and "wrong." The errors involved in the test were collected by observing the oral and written errors of high school students. Since the student has always to choose between a right and a wrong form, the element of guessing enters to some extent. But the influence of guessing is neutralized by the large number of items involved, 178 in all.

The Kirby Test.[2] — The Kirby grammar test asks the student to choose from two forms the correct one for each sentence in the test, and then to indicate the rule of grammar involved in the choice. The errors questioned

[1] *The Cross English Test*, Principally for High School Seniors and College Freshmen. World Book Company, Yonkers, New York.

[2] *Kirby Grammar Test*, Grades VII to XII. Extension Division, University of Iowa.

in the sentences were collected by observing the speech and writing of school children.

The Pressey Diagnostic Tests.[1] — The Pressey Tests are classed as " composition tests." There are, however, three of them, one a vocabulary test, one a grammar test, and one a punctuation test. The vocabulary test requires the completion of sentences. Each sentence is completed by adding one word chosen from a list of four sentences in a group. Only one of the four is wrong. The pupil is expected to draw a line under the " wrong " sentence. The punctuation test requires the pupil to supply capital letters and punctuation marks, except initial capitals and end punctuations, for a series of sentences. The three, taken one after the other, test quite a wide range of abilities. There is, to be sure, some possibility of guessing playing a part in the results, but here the guess is a possible one out of four, rather than one out of two.

The Starch Scales.[2] — In a way somewhat like that of the Pressey Tests the three forms of the Starch Scales measure three phases of the pupil's ability to use correct forms. A distinctive feature of these tests is that the items are arranged in an ascending order of difficulty so that a pupil's score is not the number of items he succeeds in getting correct but the highest step he reaches in the scale.

The punctuation scale, like that in the Pressey Tests, is separate from the grammar scale. It should be kept

[1] *Pressey Diagnostic Tests in English Composition.* (Vocabulary, grammar, and punctuation.) Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.

[2] *Starch Punctuation Scale.* Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.

in mind that a punctuation scale tests much more than mere punctuation. All the rules of punctuation are stated in terms of the grammar of a sentence. For example, " Coördinate clauses not joined by a semicolon," involves an understanding of the compound sentence. Another rule, " An adverbial clause preceding the main clause of a sentence is set off by a comma," assumes an understanding of certain features of the complex sentence. The scales, then, that deal with punctuation are in reality punctuation and grammar scales.

The Wilson Language Error Test.[1] — Pupils taking the Wilson Test are supplied with a copy of a story and directed to correct all the errors in it. These errors are twenty-eight in number and are varied as to kind; verb forms, pronoun forms, and choice of words. There are three different stories available, so that the test may be given three times to test progress.

Summary. — A great number of tests are available for use, covering almost every phase of the English problem one can think of. Many of these have been so carefully standardized that they are very valuable in determining the relative standing of a pupil or a class in comparison with the hundreds or thousands of others who have taken the same test or tests. Some of the tests are diagnostic; some are survey or general tests. These terms do not exclude each other, however, for no general test or survey test can escape being partially diagnostic; nor is it possible to make a diagnostic test that does not provide teachers with a means of comparing

[1] *Wilson Language Error Test.* Grades III to XII. Forms A, B, and C. World Book Company, Yonkers, New York.

their pupils and their schools with others. At the same time it points out what particular language needs there are in the school or what a given pupil's shortcomings are.

One inherent fault in all the tests is that they cannot give assurance that what a pupil writes in a test is what he actually uses in his speech and writing. In the test he writes either what he knows or what he luckily or unluckily guesses to be right, but one cannot be sure that " knowing " and " doing " go together.

Descriptions of the tests inadequate. — Teachers college classes studying the scales and tests should not rely upon the brief descriptions given in such chapters as this or in textbooks on tests and measurements. The best these can do is to show the student what the tests are designed to do, how they are constructed, and in general how they are to be used. In order to evaluate them intelligently it is necessary to have samples of all the tests for examination. Students should also *take* a number of the tests to get clear ideas of their contents and how the items appeal to one who is being examined. Also the student should have some practice in giving and scoring such tests as are likely to be used in the kinds of classes he is preparing to teach.

REFERENCES FOR ADDITIONAL READINGS

For this course read only the chapters on educational tests, in the books listed. Leave the chapters on mental or intelligence tests for other studies.

CHAPMAN, J. C., and RUSH, G. P. — *Scientific Measurement of Classroom Products.*

MCCALL, W. A. — *How to Measure in Education.*

MONROE, W. S. — *An Introduction to the Theory of Educational Measurements.*

MONROE, W. S., DEVOSS, J. C., and KELLY, F. J. — *Educational Tests and Measurements.* Revised Edition, 1924. Introduction, bibliography, and Chapters V, VI, XI, XII, XIII, and XIV.

PRESSEY, L. C. — *Introduction to the Use of Standard Tests.*

WILSON, G. M., and HOKE, K. J. — *How to Measure.*

CONCLUSION

One who has ability to speak English with fluency and accuracy and simplicity is very fortunate, for he can express his thoughts in speech that will be understood not only in Great Britain and the United States, but almost anywhere in the world. Anyone who is interested in being exactly understood, who wishes to avoid being marked by the oddity and crudity of his language, who has an interest in preserving English as a world speech, must learn to speak the words of the language distinctly, without blurring his enunciation, to pronounce his words as educated men and women pronounce them, and to combine them in sentences according to the laws and customs followed by English speakers who respect their language.

Aims and purposes are usually given at the beginning of a book. We are reversing the custom here. The preceding paragraph is a statement of what we believe the student should hope to achieve as a result of studying his native language and its grammar. With this purpose, the study of grammar becomes worth while.

To the student it may be said in closing: The English language is a rich inheritance. It is like a rare musical instrument, handed down from generation to generation. It should not be marred by careless usage. If you owned a harp upon which the Saxon bards had once played the accompaniment to *Beowulf* you would not willingly

desecrate it by playing on it out of tune. Neither should you desecrate the language which has been handed down to you — the instrument of expression which has served Chaucer and Shakespeare and Milton and all the great folk who have used the good English tongue. You should not employ it to express empty-minded nothings in slovenly sentences with ill-chosen, badly enunciated, and badly pronounced words. You have inherited the English language. It is a simple and beautiful speech, capable of expressing every human thought, the simplest or the most profound. Use it as an instrument of value, and think it a privilege to keep it fine for yourself and to teach others its usefulness and its beauty.

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